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MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

VOL. II.

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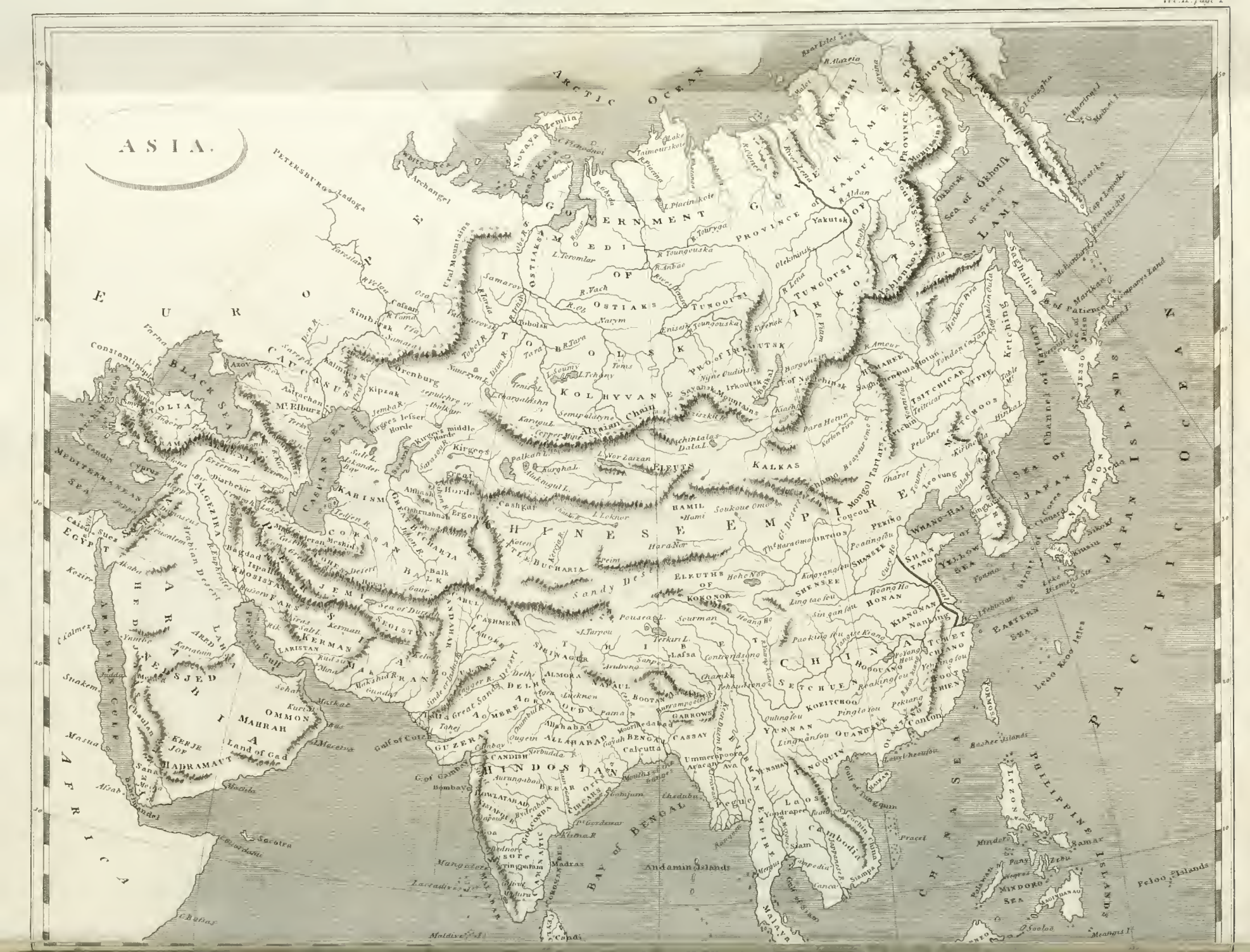
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MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

HAVING thus given a deſcription ſufficiently ample, as is preſumed, of Europe, the moſt intereſting portion of the globe, that of the remaining three quarters ſhall be more reſtricted, as the topics are generally leſs alluring to the European reader, and in many inſtances the materials are imperfect. Of ſome parts of America, and the vaſt central regions of Africa, little is known: but Aſia preſents a more extenſive theme, and teems with ſcenes of important events in ancient and modern hiſtory.

ASIA.

THIS great diviſion of the earth extends, in length, from the Helleſpont to what is called the Eaſt Cape; that is from about the 26° of longitude, eaſt from London, into the other hemiſphere to near 190 degrees of eaſt longitude, or 170° weſt from London; being no leſs than 164° or (taking the degree at a medial latitude) more than 6500 geographical miles. From the ſouthern cape of Malacca to the cape of Cevero Voſtochnoi, which braves the ice of the Arctic ocean, the breadth extends from about 2° of northern latitude to about 77°, or nearly 4500 geographical miles. If, for the ſake of a rude and merely comparative calculation, one ſixth part be added for the difference between the ſtatute and geographical mile, the length of Aſia in Britiſh miles would be about 7583: and the breadth 5250. EXTENT.

EXTENT. Of the vaſt extent of Aſia the ancients entertained moſt indiſtinct ideas; and in fact the diſcovery of this great diviſion of the world may be ſaid to have commenced with the travels of Marco Polo, the Venetian, in the end of the thirteenth century; and it was not completed, with regard to the eaſtern extremities, till the recent travels were publiſhed in Ruſſia, and the voyages of Beering, Cook, and La Perouſe. It is now well known that Aſia is limited, on the eaſt, by a ſtrait which divides it from America; and which in honour of the diſcoverer is called Beering's ſtrait. The northern and ſouthern boundaries are the Arctic and Indian oceans, in which laſt many large iſlands, particularly that of New Holland, now more claſſically and properly ſtyled by ſome *Auſtralaſia*,* afford a vaſt additional extent to this quarter of the globe. The weſtern limits of Aſia have already been diſcuſſed in the account of the eaſtern limits of Europe.

Original Population. The population of Aſia is by all authors allowed to be wholly primitive and original; if we except that of the Techuks or Tchuktchi, who, by the Ruſſian travellers and Mr. Tooke, are ſuppoſed to have paſſed from the oppoſite coaſt of America. A few colonies have migrated from Ruſſia to the northern parts, as far as the ſea of Kamtchatka: and there are well known European ſettlements in Hindoſtan and the iſles to the S. E.; but the firſt ſerious attempt to colonize what is eſteemed a part of Aſia was the recent ſettlement at Port Jackſon. With theſe and other trifling exceptions Aſia preſents a prodigious original population, as may be judged from the following table, which will be found more clear than any prolix diſcuſſion on the ſubject.

LINNÆAN TABLE OF THE NATIONS AND LANGUAGES IN ASIA.

Ordo.	*Genus.*	*Species.*
I. Aſſyrians.	Aſſyrians.	Chaldee.
	Arabians.	Hebrew, &c.
	Egyptians.	
II. Scythians.	Perſians.	Armenians.†
	Scythians *intra et extra Imaum*, &c.	

* More briefly *Notaſia*, from the Greek, as from them we receive the name of Aſia: and in ſuch new terms the Grecian language is juſtly and properly preferred.

† The Parſi and Zend are cognate with the Gothic, Greek, Latin, according to Sir William Jones. Indian Diſſert. vol. i. p. 206. The Pehlavi is Aſſyrian or Chaldaic. Id. 187, 188. 206.

Orb.

Ordo.	*Genus.*	*Species.*	ORIGINAL POPULATION.
III. Sarmats.	Medes.	Georgians.	
	Parthians.	Circaſſians.	
IV. { Seres. Indi.	Hindoos.	Northern and Southern, &c.	
V. Sinæ.	Chineſe.		
	Japaneſe.	*	

Barbaric nations from north to ſouth, and according to the degrees of barbariſm.

VI. Samoieds.	Oſtiacs, Yurals, &c.	
VII. Yakuts.	Yukagirs.	(Expelled Tatars, according to Tooke and Leſſeps.)
VIII. Koriacs.	Techuks or Tchuktchi.	†
IX. Kamchadals.	Kurillians.	‡
X. Mandſhurs or Tunguſes.	Lamuts.	(Ruling people in China.)
XI. Monguls.	Kalmucs.	Soongars.
		Tonguts.
		Burats, &c.
XII. Tatars or Huns. §	Turks.	Nogays.
	Khaſars.	Baſhkirs.
	Uzes.	Kirguſes or Kaizaks.
	Siberians.	Teleuts.

Beſides theſe numerous original nations, the Malays and Aſiatic iſlanders conſtitute another large and diſtinct claſs of mankind, with a peculiar ſpeech, in the ſouth of the extenſive continent of Aſia.

Thé

* Theſe have a Tataric form and face: they are probably highly civilized Tatars, Monguls, or Mandſhurs.

† From the oppoſite coaſt of America Tooke's Ruſſia.' The Yukagirs are a tribe of the YAKUTS (around Yakutſk), and both are expelled Tatars. Tooke's View, ii. 80. Leſſeps, ii. 312.

‡ Theſe reſemble the Japaneſe.

§ After the deſtruction of Attila's ſwarms, and the effects of unfortunate inroads, the Huns became ſubject to the Monguls, who under Zingis or Genghiz-Khan, Timur, &c. conſtituted the ſupreme nation in Aſia.

The great ſhare of population which Europe has received from Aſia will appear from the following little table:

PRIMÆVAL INHABITANTS.

Ordo.	*Genus.*	*Species.*
I. Celts.	Iriſh.	Erſe, Manks.
	Welch.	Corniſh.
	Armorican.	
II. Fins (chief god *Tummala*).	Finlanders.	Permians or Biarmians.
	Eſthonians.	Livonians.
	Laplanders.	Votiacs and Chermiſſes.
	Hungarians.	Vogules and Oſtiacs.

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

The progreſſive geography of this quarter of the globe might afford an important and intereſting ſubject of diſcuſſion, if treated at due length, as embracing the various diſcoveries which, at long intervals of time, ſucceſſively diſcloſed its vaſt extent. The moſt authentic information concerning the knowledge of the ancients is to be found in the geography of Ptolemy; but modern commentators differ in the elucidation of his text. The extreme points of diſcovery mentioned by Ptolemy are, towards the Indian Ocean, the town of Sina; and, inland, in the parallel of the ſouth of the Caſpian, Sera, the metropolis of the Seres. That able geographer D'Anville has expreſſed his opinion, concerning Sina, in the following terms:

"The oriental geographers, to whom the country of the Sines muſt have been well known, compriſe its capital in the zone of the firſt climate; which riſing to twenty degrees and a half does not extend to China: but by an extravagant error *Sinarum Metropolis* has been applied to Naⁿ-kin in the thirty-ſecond degree. The imperial rank of the laſt mentioned city, to which it did not attain till towards the cloſe of the fourth century, could not have cauſed it to be thus diſtinguiſhed by Ptolemy, who lived under the Antonines, about two ages before. The Chineſe do not acknowledge the name that we have given to their nation. They are fond of borrowing for the purpoſe of diſtinction, the name of ſome dynaſties, whoſe memory is precious to them: and above all, from that of Haⁿ, which commenced two hundred and ſome years before the Chriſtian æra, they denominate themſelves Haⁿ-nginⁿ,

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COLONIES FROM ASIA.

III. Scythians or Goths (*Odin*).	Icelanders, Norwegians.	
	Swedes, Danes.	
	Germans.	Swiſs, Friſic.
	Engliſh.	Flemiſh, Dutch.
IV. Sarmats or Slavons (*Perun*).	Poles.	Heruli.
	Ruſſians.	Vendi.
	Koſſacs.	Lettes.

The inhabitants of France, Italy, and Spain are alſo of Aſiatic origin; and ſpeak corrupted Roman, which, like the Greek, is a poliſhed dialect of the Gothic, according to Sir William Jones and other able antiquaries. The Heruli, Wends, and Lettes, uſed mixed and imperfect dialects of the Slavonic. Critical Review, vol. xxvii. p. 129.

or

or the people of Hañ; and by an idea which they have of the moſt advantageous ſituation of their country, they name it Tchon-kouć or the middle kingdom. But the name of Sines is preſerved in that of Cochin-China, which, without the alteration that it has ſuffered on the part of Europeans, is Kao-tſii-Sin. The Arabs have found the name of Sin in the country where Ptolemy knew the Sines. The name of Singi, which the Indians as well as the Arabs give to the ſea which involves this country, is a derivation from the ſame name. This name of Siñ has followed the progreſs of navigation and commerce, beyond the true limits of the ancient country of Siñ; having been extended by the Portugueſe, who preceded the other weſtern nations in theſe remote longitudes, and become common among thoſe which have followed. And that the country of Sinæ ought not to be tranſported to China, as it appears in all the maps which have preceded thoſe of the author of the preſent work, is an article in ancient geography which may juſtify the foregoing diſcuſſion.

" The capital of the Sines is named Thynæ by Ptolemy; and according to the Latin verſion, which is regarded as a text, Sinæ. Its poſition appears at a diſtance from the ſea, at the mouth of a river named Cotiaris, having communication on the left with another river, whoſe name was Senus. This then can be no other than the great river of Camboja; which, eighty leagues above its mouth, divides into two branches. The principal, or that of the right, correſponding with the Cotiaris, and which is called the Japaneſe river, conducts to a city of which the Arabian geographers ſpeak as being very celebrated for its commerce under the name of Loukin; and this poſition appears to anſwer to that of Thinæ in Ptolemy. But the city of the Sines, named Siñ by the Arabian geographers, and in the Chineſe memoirs Teheñ-teheñ, is a poſition more remote than Loukin, and is found diſtinguiſhed by the name of Siñ-hoa, as having been the moſt flouriſhing city of Cochin-China, before its port was deſtroyed by alluvions of ſand. The name of Thoañ-hoa, which its diſtrict bears, ſeems, together with the other circumſtances reported, to favour the application of the name of Thinæ to this city alſo. Thinæ is mentioned diverſely in many authors of antiquity. But what cannot have a place here will

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be found in a memoir, contained in vol. xxxii. of the Memoirs of the Academy, on the limits of the world known to the ancients beyond the Ganges."[1]

So far this induſtrious geographer, whoſe reaſoning muſt, at the firſt glance, be pronounced to be vague and inconcluſive. Nor has he been able to avoid that rock upon which many geographical theories have ſplit, the attempt to trace ancient appellations by modern names: while the latter, though bearing even ſtrong reſemblance, may be very recent, and have no connexion whatever with the ancient etymon. The opinion of D'Anville has ſince been ably controverted by Goſſellin;[2] who ſeems to demonſtrate that the Golden Cherſoneſe of Ptolemy is the ſouthern part of the kingdom of Pegu, not Malacca as D'Anville ſuppoſed; and that the capital of the Sinæ is Tanaſerim in the weſt of the country of Siam. In this Goſſellin ſeems well founded; though in a latter work he certainly have too much reſtricted the knowledge of the ancients concerning Africa.

With regard to the other extreme poſition, that of Sera, while D'Anville ridicules the idea of tranſporting it to Pekin, he himſelf ſeems to have placed it too much to the eaſt, when he infers, from very vague circumſtances, that it is Can-Tcheou, a town of Tangut, now comprized in the Chineſe province of Shen-ſi. There can on the contrary be little doubt, from the aſpect of Ptolemy's maps, that his Serica is the country now called Little Bucharia. Nor is there any reaſon to believe that the ancients had ever paſſed the great deſart of Cobi. His Scythia beyond the mountains of Imaus, or Belur Tag, is by himſelf reſtricted to a *narrow ſtripe* on the eaſt of theſe mountains; and ſeems now to correſpond with the mountainous diſtricts on the weſt and north of Little Bucharia.

From this diſcuſſion it will appear that not above one quarter of Aſia was known to the ancients; and this knowledge was little encreaſed till Marco Polo, whoſe travels became well known in Europe in the beginning of the fourteenth century, eſtabliſhed a memorable epoch in geography, by paſſing to China, and diſcloſing the extent of that coun-

[1] D'Anville, Ancient Geography, p. 563. London, 1791. 8vo.

[2] Geographie des Grecs analyſée. Paris, 1790. 4to.

try,

try, the iſlands of Japan, and a faint intelligence of other regions, illuſtrated and confirmed by recent accounts. The wide conqueſts of the famous Zingis, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, firſt opened the diſcovery of the diſtant parts of Aſia, the Monguls, whoſe ſovereign he was, being ſituated to the eaſt of the Huns, who had before diffuſed terror over Europe. The firſt ſeat of the Monguls was in the mountains which give ſource to the river Onon; and at a ſhort diſtance to the S. W. was Kara-kum, the firſt capital of the Mongul empire. The victories of Zingis extended from Cathay, or the northern part of China, to the river Indus; and his ſucceſſors extended them over Ruſſia, while their inroads reached Hungary and Germany. This widely diffuſed power of the Monguls naturally excited an attention and curioſity, never ſtimulated by a number of petty barbaric tribes; and at the ſame time facilitated the progreſs of the traveller, who, as in Africa at preſent, had been formerly impeded by the enmities of diminutive potentates. By force of arms the Monguls alſo firſt opened the obſcure receſſes of Siberia. Sheibani Khan, A. D. 1242, led a horde of 15,000 families into thoſe northern regions; and his deſcendants reigned at Tobolſkoy above three centuries till the Ruſſian conqueſt.[3] Two European travellers, Carpini and Rubruquis, were commiſſioned to inſpect the power and reſources of the new empire of the Monguls; the latter found at Kara-kum a Pariſian goldſmith, employed in the ſervice of the Khan; and by Carpini's relation it appears, that, from their brethren in Siberia the Monguls had received ſome intelligence concerning the Samoieds. PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

Thus the diſcovery of Aſia, which had been nearly dormant ſince the time of Ptolemy, began to revive in the thirteenth century. Yet after the publication of Marco Polo's travels little was done for two centuries; and the authenticity of his accounts even began to be queſtioned.* One man indeed, of great mental powers, was impreſſed with their veracity, and in conſequence accompliſhed a memorable enterprize. This was Chriſtoval Colon, or as we call him Chriſtopher Co-

[3] Gibbon, xi. 424.

* From the map of the world by Andrea Bianco the Venetian, 1440, it ſufficiently appears that the diſcoveries of Polo had, even in his native country, been rather diminiſhed than increaſed. See Formaleoni, Saggio ſulla Nautica Antica dei Veneziani. Ven. 1783. 8vo. See alſo the deſcription of Aſia by Pope Pius II, who does not appear even to have ſeen the travels of Polo.

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lumbus, who was led by the relation of Polo to conceive that, as Aſia extended ſo far to the eaſt, its ſhores might be reached by a ſhort navigation from the weſtern extremity of Europe. In this erroneous idea, when that great man diſcovered the iſlands now called the Weſt-Indies, he thought that he had arrived at the Zipango of Polo, or Japan; and thus the name of India was abſurdly beſtowed on thoſe new regions.

After the diſcovery of America and the Cape of Good Hope, the maritime parts and iſlands of Aſia were ſucceſſively diſcloſed. Yet the recent voyages of the Ruſſian navigators, of our immortal Cook, and of the unfortunate La Perouſe, evince that much remained to be done; and concerning the interior of Siberia ſcarcely any ſolid information aroſe, till Peter the Great, after the battle of Pultowa, ſent many Swediſh priſoners into that region; and Strahlenberg, one of the officers, publiſhed an account of Siberia. This knowledge was greatly improved and increaſed by the well known journies of Pallas, and others. Yet our knowledge of Aſia is far from being perfect, eſpecially in reſpect to Daouria, and other regions near the confines between the Ruſſian and Chineſe empires; not to mention central Aſia in general, Tibbet or Tibet, and ſome more ſouthern regions; nor had even the geography of Hindoſtan been treated with tolerable accuracy till Major Rennell publiſhed his excellent map and memoir. It is almoſt unneceſſary to remind the reader of the recent diſcoveries to the ſouth of Aſia, in which the interior, and ſouthern coaſt, of New Holland remain to be explored: with other defects of ſmaller conſequence. But while many improvements are wanted in the geography of ſeveral European countries, it is no wonder there ſhould be great deficiencies in that of the other quarters of the globe.

The importance of the ſubject will excuſe the length of theſe remarks on the progreſſive geography of Aſia, than which no part of the ſcience can be more juſtly intereſting; from the vaſt extent of that portion of the globe; from the great variety of nations, civiliſed and barbarous, by whom it is peopled; and from its intimate connexion with the deſtinies of Europe, which it has frequently overawed, while the ſavage tribes of Africa and America can never become formidable to European arts or happineſs.

The

The religions of Aſia are various, and will be illuſtrated in the accounts of the ſeveral countries. The climate alſo admits of every variety, from the equator to the arctic ſea. Religions.

Though Aſia cannot vie with Europe in the advantages of inland ſeas, yet, in addition to a ſhare of the Mediterranean, it poſſeſſes the Red Sea, the Arabian Sea, and gulph of Perſia; the bays of Bengal and Nankin; and other gulphs, which diverſify the coaſts much more than thoſe of Africa or America, and have doubtleſs contributed greatly to the early civiliſation of this celebrated diviſion of the earth. Seas.

The Red Sea, or the Arabian gulph of antiquity, conſtitutes the grand natural diviſion between Aſia and Africa; but its advantages have chiefly been felt by the latter, which is entirely deſtitute of other inland ſeas; Egypt and Abyſſinia, two of the moſt civiliſed countries in that diviſion, having derived great benefits from that celebrated gulph, which from the ſtraits of Babelmandeb to Suez extends about 21°, or 1470 Britiſh miles; terminating not in two equal branches, as delineated in old maps, but in an extenſive weſtern branch, while the eaſtern aſcends little beyond the parallel of Mount Sinai. Red Sea.

The Perſian gulph is another noted inland ſea, about half the length of the former, being the grand receptacle of thoſe celebrated rivers the Euphrates and the Tigris.

The other gulphs do not afford ſuch ſtrong features of what are properly termed inland ſeas; if the Euxine be excepted, which has already been briefly deſcribed in the general ſurvey of Europe.* But the vaſt extent of Aſia contains ſeas totally detached, and of a different deſcription from any that occur in Europe, or other quarters of the globe. Such is the Caſpian ſea, extending about 10° or 700 miles in length, and from 100 to 200 in breadth. Strabo and Pliny idly ſuppoſed this ſea to be a gulph, extending from the northern ocean; while Herodotus, many centuries before, had expreſſed more juſt ideas. Yet the Caſpian ſeems at one period to have ſpread further to the north, where the deſarts are ſtill ſandy and ſaline, and preſent the ſame ſhells that are Caſpian.

* The form of the Euxine has been greatly improved, from recent obſervations, in Mr. Arrowſmith's maps; the breadth from the ſouthern cape of Crimea to the oppoſite Aſiatic promontories being found to be far leſs than formerly ſuppoſed.

Seas. found in the Caſpian: but the chain of mountains which branches from the weſt of the Urals to the north of Orenburg, and reaches to the Volga, muſt, in all ages, have reſtricted the northern bounds of the Caſpian. To the eaſt this remarkable ſea, in the opinion of moſt geographers, extended at no very remote period to the lake of Aral; the deſarts on that ſide preſenting the ſame features as thoſe to the north, though there be now an elevated level between the ſea of Aral and the Caſpian, occaſioned perhaps by the quantity of ſand rolled down by the Gihon, the Sirr, and other rivers which now flow into the ſea of Aral. The northern ſhores are low and ſwampy, often overgrown with reeds; but in many other parts the coaſts are precipitous, with ſuch deep water that a line of 450 fathom will not reach the bottom. This ſea is the receptacle of many important rivers, as the Jemba, the Ural or Jaik, and the Volga from the north: the Kuma, Terek, Kur, and Kizil Ozen from the weſt: thoſe from the ſouth are of ſmall moment; but from the eaſt the Caſpian is ſuppoſed ſtill to receive the Tedjen; and the Gihon, or Oxus of antiquity, flowed into the Caſpian, at leaſt by one or two branches, till it bent northward and joined the ſea of Aral. Beſides herrings, ſalmon, and other fiſh, with porpuſes and ſeals, this ſea produces ſterlet, and great numbers of excellent ſturgeon; which laſt in particular aſcend the Volga, and ſupply kaviar and other articles of exportation, The birds moſt generally ſeen are ſtorks, herons, bitterns, ſpoon-bills, with many others; particularly a kind of heron of a pure white, while the tips of the wings, the beak and feet, are ſcarlet.[4] The beſt haven in the Caſpian is that of Baku: that of Derbent is rocky, and that of Enſili, or Sinſili, not commodious, though one of the chief ports of trade.

Aral. About 100 miles to the Eaſt of the Caſpian, is the ſea or lake of Aral, which is about 200 miles in length, and about 70 miles in breadth; receiving the river anciently called Iaxartes, more recently the Sirr or Sihon, and the river Gihon the Oxus of antiquity; both ſtreams of conſiderable courſe, flowing from the mountains of Belur Tag or Imaus. The ſea of Aral being ſurrounded with ſandy deſarts, has been little ex-

[4] Tooke's View of the Ruſſian empire, i. 239.

plored;

plored; but it is ſalt like the Caſpian, and there are many ſmall ſaline lakes in the vicinity. SEAS.

Another remarkable detached ſea is that of Baikal in Siberia, or Aſiatic Ruſſia, extending from about the fifty-firſt to the fifty-fifth degree of north latitude, being about 350 Britiſh miles in length, but its greateſt breadth not above 35. The water is freſh and tranſparent, yet of a green or ſea tinge, commonly frozen in the latter end of December, and clear of ice in May. The Baikal is, at particular periods, ſubject to violent and unaccountable ſtorms, whence, as terror is the parent of ſuperſtition, probably ſprings the Ruſſian name of Svetoie Morè, or the Holy Sea.[5] There are many ſeals, and abundance of fiſh, particularly a kind of herring called omuli. Several iſlands appear, and that of Olchon has ſulphureous ſprings. The chief river flowing into the Baikal is the Selinga, from the ſouth; while from the north it emits the Angara, which joins the prodigious ſtream of the Yeniſei. Baikal.

Of the other Aſiatic ſeas a minute account would be ſuperfluous; but a few obſervations may be offered on the remarkable ſtrait which divides Aſia from America. This ſtrait, which was diſcovered by Beering and afterwards by Cook, is about 13 leagues, or near 40 miles in breadth. Beering, a Dane, was employed by Peter the Great in 1728, and actually paſſed this ſtrait, probably in the uſual fogs of the climate, without diſcovering land to the eaſt; but our great navigator gave the name of the Daniſh adventurer to theſe ſtraits, when he afterwards explored them with his uſual accuracy.[6] On the Aſiatic ſhore is the Eaſt Cape; and on the American that called Prince of Wales. The depth of the ſtrait is from 12 to 30 fathoms. To the north of theſe ſtraits the Aſiatic ſhore tends rapidly to the weſtward; while the American proceeds nearly in a northern direction, till, at the diſtance of about four or five degrees, the continents are joined by ſolid and impenetrable bonds of ice.

In the Aſiatic ſeas there are numerous ſhoals, or ſand banks; but few of them have been deſcribed as conducive to human induſtry.

The chief rivers of Aſia are the Kian Ku and Hoan Ho, the Lena, the Yeniſei, and the Ob, ſtreams which rival in the length of their RIVERS.

5 Tooke's View, i. 141.

6 Pennant, Arc. Zool. clxxix.

Rivers. courſe any others on the globe. The Volga has been named among the rivers of Europe, to which the principal part of its courſe belongs. Next in conſequence are the Amur, and the Maykaung of Laos, if the courſe be rightly delineated, the Sampoo or Burrampooter, and the Ganges; compared with all which the Euphrates and Indus hide their diminiſhed heads. A more particular account of theſe rivers will be given under the reſpective regions.

Mountains. The Aſiatic mountains are ſaid not to equal the European in height. The Uralian chain, forming a boundary of Europe, has been already

Altai. deſcribed. The Altaian chain may be claſſed among the moſt extenſive on the globe, reaching from about the ſeventieth to the hundred and fortieth degree of longitude eaſt from London, or about 5000 miles, thus rivalling in length the Andes of S. America. But as chains of mountains rarely receive uniform appellations, except from nations highly civilized, the Altaian chain, beyond the ſources of the Yeniſei, is called the mountains of Sayanſk; and from the ſouth of the ſea of Baikal the mountains of Yablonnoy: branches of which extend even to the country of the Techuks, or extreme boundaries of Aſia. To the ſouth of the Altaian ridge extends the elevated deſart of Cobi or Shamo, running in a parallel direction from eaſt to weſt; and the high region of Tibet may be included in this central prominence of Aſia. The chain of Alak may perhaps be regarded as a part of the Altaian, branching to the ſouth, while the Taurus, now known by various names in different countries, was by the ancients regarded as a range of great length, reaching from cape Kelidoni on the weſt of the gulph of Satalia, through Armenia, even to India: but this laſt chain has not impreſſed modern travellers with the ſame idea of its extent.* Other conſiderable ranges of mountains are Bogdo, Changai, Belur, thoſe of Tibet, the eaſtern and weſtern Gauts of Hindoſtan; and the Caucaſian chain between the Euxine and Caſpian; all which will be afterwards more particularly deſcribed.

* See Pliny, lib. v. c. 27, who ſays that the Imaus, the Emodus, and the mountains running through the centre of Perſia, including the Niphates of Armenia, and even the Caucaſus itſelf, are all parts of the Taurian chain, which thence ſpreads S. W. along the Mediterranean. But this great ſouthern chain is unknown to modern geography, and ſeems rather theoretical in reducing mountains of various directions to one ſeries. The northern chain of Natolia was called Anti Taurus by the ancients.

The

The Aſiatic governments are almoſt univerſally deſpotic, and the very idea of a commonwealth ſeems to be unknown. The mildeſt ſyſtems are perhaps thoſe found in Arabia.

In arranging the extenſive ſtates of Aſia, according to their population and relative conſequence, the firſt and chief rank, beyond all compariſon, muſt be aſſigned to the Chineſe empire. But that prodigious domination being eſtranged from Europe, and having in no age exerted the ſmalleſt influence on its deſtinies, it ſeems preferable, in this inſtance, firſt to conſider two powerful ſtates, intimately blended with European policy. The Turkiſh empire in Aſia conſtitutes a natural and eaſy tranſition from the deſcription of Europe; and the Ruſſian empire, though in population far inferior, yet in military and political force tranſcends that of China.

From the Ruſſian empire in Aſia the tranſition is eaſy to that of China, a bordering ſtate; after which ſhall be deſcribed Japan, and a new great power, the Birman empire. Hindoſtan and Perſia being now divided into ſeveral diſtinct ſovereignties, and Arabia containing many independent ſtates, the ſcale of political importance becomes tranſitive and indiſtinct; and may juſtly yield in ſuch caſes to mere geographical arrangement. Hence the ſmaller ſtates of India beyond the Ganges, or between Hindoſtan and China, will follow the Birman empire, to which, or to China, they may perhaps ſoon be ſubjected. A weſtern progreſs leads to Hindoſtan, Perſia, and Arabia: and a ſhort account of the various intereſting and important iſlands in the Indian, and in the Paciſic, oceans, will cloſe this grand department of the work.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

CHAPTER I.

Historical Geography.

Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Population.—Progreſſive Geography.—Hiſtorical Epochs and Antiquities.

Extent. THIS region extends from the ſhores of the Egean ſea, or Archipelago, to the confines of Perſia; a ſpace of about 1050 Britiſh miles. The boundaries towards Perſia are rather ideal than natural, though ſomewhat marked by the mountains of Ararat and Elwend. In the north the Turkiſh territories are now divided from the Ruſſian by the river Cuban, and the chain of Caucaſus; in the ſouth they extend to the junction of the Tigris and the Euphrates, which laſt river, for a conſiderable ſpace, divides the Turkiſh poſſeſſions from thoſe of the Arabs. From the river Cuban to the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates, may be about 1100 Britiſh miles.

This extenſive territory, which in itſelf would conſtitute an empire, could it reſume its priſtine population, is divided into nine or ten provinces. Natolia, the moſt weſterly, is followed by Karaman in the ſouth; and Roum in the north eaſt. To the north of Armenia are Guria, or Guriel, Mingrelia, and the Abkhas of Caucaſus, the ancient Circaſſians. Armenia is alſo ſtyled Turcomania; to the ſouth of which are Kurdiſtan, and Irak Arabi, a part of ancient Perſia around the

ASIA MINOR
EUROPE
BLACK SEA
MEDITERRANEAN
SEA of MARMARA
CONSTANTINOPLE
Adrianople
Cape Krompy high land
Cape Indge low land
ARMENIA
DIAR BEKIR
SYRIAN DESERT
ALEPPO
CYPRUS
Smyrna
Angora
Erzerum
Van
Lake Van
Tokat
Sivas
Kaisarea
Konich
Erekli
Satalia
Adana
Scanderoon
Antioch
Palmyra
Harnah
Mardin
Orfa
Bostan
Amasra
Unieh
Samsun
Simpre
Trebezond
Kars
Erivan
Mosul
Diarbekir
Euphrates
Tigris
Black Sea
Gulf of Samsun
Gulf of Scanderoon
Gulf of Satalia
Gulf of Macri
Gulf of Smyrna
Cape Carabouna
Cape Pierre
Cape Blanco
Cape Anemur
Cape Chelidonia
Castle of Anemur
Castle of Gulnar
Castle of Satalia
Castle of Scanderoon
Castle of Trebezond
Mount Olympus
Mount Argis
Mount Ararat
Mount Taurus
Mount Nabat
Mount Karaji Dag
Mount Amadiah
Mount Giudi
Mount Bidis
Mount Jefseera
Mount Sindjar
Mount Tomange
Mount Ida
Mount Beigerm
Mount Hellalan
Mount Karmuk
Mount Taduan
Mount Argish
Mount Nisbin
Mount Kara Dag
Mount Derjezbiyaar
Mount Ak Dag
Mount Kara Hissar
Mount Kara Dag
Mount Kara Dag
Mount Kara Dag

celebrated capital, Bagdad. The ancient Meſopotamia, between the Tigris and the Euphrates, now partly correſponds with the province of Algezira; and the claſſical name of Syria or Soria is ſtill allotted to the celebrated countries along the eaſtern extremities of the Mediterranean. Some of theſe provinces are of comparatively recent acquiſition; Bagdad having belonged to Perſia till 1638; while on the contrary Erivan, reconquered by the Perſians in 1635, has remained free from the Turkiſh domination. EXTENT.

Theſe provinces are ſubdivided into governments, arbitrarily adminiſtered by Paſhas, a detail of which would afford little ſatisfaction, eſpecially in the preſent declining ſtate of the Turkiſh empire.

The original population of theſe regions conſiſted chiefly of Scythic nations, mingled with a few Aſſyrians from the ſouth. But a complete illuſtration of this ſubject would be foreign to the nature of this work. At preſent the ruling language is the Turkiſh, next to which may be placed the modern Greek; but the Arabic, Syrian, Perſian, and Armenian, with various dialects uſed by the tribes on the Black ſea, indicate the diverſity of population. Original Population.

The progreſſive geography may be traced from the remoteſt antiquity to modern times; but Turkiſh barbariſm has prevented the preciſion of recent knowledge from adding complete illuſtration to the geography of this part of Aſia. Progreſſive Geography.

The chief epochs of Turkiſh hiſtory have already been mentioned, in deſcribing their European poſſeſſions. Armenia and Georgia were ſubdued by the Turks in the eleventh century, and the whole of Aſia Minor rapidly followed. Their kingdom of Roum extended from the Euphrates to Conſtantinople, and from the Black ſea to the confines of Syria. Succeſſive warlike princes acquired additional territory from the Mamaluks of Egypt, and the Perſians. Syria, formerly an appanage of Egypt, was conquered by Selim II in 1516; Tauris and Diarbekr, which laſt had formerly belonged to Perſia, were ſubdued by the ſame monarch; and in 1589 Abbas, the great ſovereign of Perſia, was obliged to yield three provinces to the Ottomans, though he extended his conqueſts to the eaſt; and Bagdad, as already mentioned, Hiſtorical Epochs.

Historical Epochs. tioned, with the ſurrounding province of Irak Arabi, became ſubject to the Turks in 1638. The preſent limits ſeem to have been fixed by the treaty between the Porte and Perſia, 1736: ſince which period the Turks have been chiefly occupied in their own defence againſt the Ruſſians; but their aſcendancy over Perſia had been ſuch, that in 1727 they had acquired the territory from Erivan to Tauris, or Tebriz, and thence to Hamadan, a boundary which ſeems indeed more preciſely marked by nature than the preſent.

Antiquities. The antiquities of Aſiatic Turkey, once the choſen ſeat of the arts, are numerous, and important, but have been ſo repeatedly deſcribed as to have become trivial themes, even to the general reader. The ſplendid publications by the ſociety of Dilettanti, and the deſcriptions of Balbec and Palmyra, will convey a more juſt idea of thoſe auguſt remains than the moſt elaborate deſcription. The moſt ſplendid ruins are thoſe of Palmyra, or Tadmor in the deſert, about 150 miles to the S. E. of Aleppo, at the northern extremity of the ſandy waſtes of Arabia. It is conceived, with ſome probability, that the ſands muſt here have encroached upon a territory formerly fertile; but as there is no river the ſituation remains equally ſurpriſing, for a capital of ſuch opulence. It is now underſtood that this city owed its ſplendour to the Indian trade, conducted by caravans to the mercantile ſhores of Syria.

Balbec, the ancient Heliopolis, is about 50 miles to the N. W. of Damaſcus; the moſt remarkable ruin being that of a temple, ſuppoſed to have been dedicated to the ſun.

Recent inveſtigation has diſcloſed another remarkable ſcene of antiquities, in the ſite and celebrated plain of Troy, which have been exhibited by Mr. Morritt, and other travellers, with laudable zeal for claſſical lore. The Simois is now demonſtrated to be a conſiderable ſtream, which runs into the Helleſpont, nearly oppoſite to the New Caſtles conſtructed under the order of Tott. The Scamander, which formerly flowed into the weſtern ſide of the Simois, having been diverted by the Romans into a different channel, this unnoted circumſtance not a little baffled antiquarian reſearch. The tombs of remote antiquity having been conſtructed like the large barrows of our anceſtors,

ceſtors, in the laſting form of ſmall hills, they withſtood the aſſaults of time, or avarice; and our travellers indicate, with ſome plauſibility, that of Hector, behind the ſite of Troy; thoſe of Achilles, and Patroclus on the ſhore; and a few others of the Homeric heroes.* Historical Epochs.

* See Morritt's vindication of Homer, &c. 1798, 4to; Dallaway's Conſtantinople; and Dalzell's tranſlation of Chevalier's memoir. The map of Dallaway is inferior to that of Morritt; but adds a few modern names. A curious general map of the Troad, Helleſpont, &c. may be found in the edition of the Voyage d'Anacharſis, Paris, An. vii. 1799, drawn up by Barbié du Bocage, from a drawing of the plain of Troy taken in 1786, by the direction of the Count Choiſeul Gouffier, and of the coaſts in 1785-6-7 by Truguet. This laſt excellent map perfectly correſponds with that of Morritt, except that the latter ſuppoſes the Thymbrius to join the Simois from the north; and the former from the ſouth. There is yet wanted an exact tranſlation, with notes, of the long deſcription by Strabo; and a comparative map arranged ſolely according to that deſcription. Du Bocage obſerves, p. 67, that in his opinion new Ilium held the very ſite of ancient Troy, as Strabo ſays it ſtood upon a height, which correſponds with the hill of Bounar-Bachi. The rivulet of Kirké-Keuzler, he agrees is the Scamander of Homer; but ſuppoſes that the new ſettlers applied that name to the larger river, or Simois of Homer, which riſes near the ſummit of Ida, and is now called Menderé-Sou.

CHAPTER II.

Population, &c.

MANY of the topics aſſigned to this chapter have been already treated in the deſcription of European Turkey. The Turkiſh empire in Aſia is eſtimated at 470,400 ſquare miles; and the population at ten millions; which, allowing eight for the European part, will render the total 18,000,000. Geographers have, contrary to the united voice of travellers, conſidered Egypt as a Turkiſh province: while in fact it was only occaſionally tributary, and was ſubject to the military ariſtocracy of the Beys. Some of the maritime Mahometan powers have likewiſe aſſiſted the Porte with ſhips in time of war; but cannot with any juſtice be regarded as ſubject to the Ottoman ſceptre. The population of theſe African ſtates is therefore foreign to the preſent conſideration.

CHAPTER III.

CIVIL GEOGRAPHY.

Manners and Cuſtoms.—Language. — Literature. — Education. — Univerſities.— Cities and Towns.—Edifices.—Roads.—Inland Navigation.—Manufactures and Commerce.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

THE manners and euſtoms of the Turks have been briefly deſcribed in the former volume; but the Aſiatic character is deeply impreſſed upon the ſubject nations. So lax is the government that hords of banditti carry on their depredations almoſt within ſight of the capital. Near Erzeron Tournefort found encampments of Kurds.[1] In the ſummer the Kurds paſs from Mouſoul to the ſources of the Euphrates; and they are never puniſhed either for robbery or murder. They are a paſtoral people, conducting their herds from one country to another; and in the time of that traveller they extended as far weſt as Tokat; where other hords, thoſe of the Turcomans, began to appear.* The Armenians, though they profeſs the Chriſtian faith, retain many ſingular manners and cuſtoms; but they are deſcribed as a ſenſible and polite people, and the chief conductors of the Levant trade, for which office they are ſingularly qualified by frugality and enterprize. They embrace the Eutychian perſuaſion, which only admits one nature in Jeſus Chriſt; a tenet which renders them irreconcileable enemies of the Greeks.

[1] ii. 199.

* See Volney, i. 369, who ſaysthat the language of the Turcomans is the ſame with that of the Turks, but the mode of life nearly ſimilar to that of the wandering Arabs. Their property conſiſts in ſheep, with ſome goats, camels, and buffaloes. He ſeems to acquit the Turcomans of the charge of robbery.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

The Druzes, a remarkable people of Syria, have attracted the obſervation of many writers. Though they affect the exterior appearance of Mahometans, yet they ſeem to have little or no religion; but even among them there are ſects, who do not accord in the modes of diſbelief. According to Volney, they practiſe neither circumciſion, prayers, nor faſting; they obſerve neither feſtivals nor prohibitions. They drink wine, eat pork, and allow marriage between brothers and ſiſters, though not between fathers and children. Near Antioch there is ſaid to be a ſect, which profeſſes ſome of the moſt diſſolute tenets of paganiſm. The Maronites are chriſtians, who acknowledge the ſuperiority of the Roman church, but have many minute peculiarities.

In the northern extremities of Aſiatic Turkey, there are alſo many tribes who have adopted ſingular manners and cuſtoms. Six or ſeven languages are ſpoken in the country between the Euxine, and the Caſpian.[2] The Abkhas are, by the Circaſſians, called Kuſh-Haſip which implies a people beyond the mountains: they retain ſome traces of chriſtianity. The Tſherkeſs, or Circaſſians, occupy an extenſive territory, and might become formidable if they were united. Part of the Circaſſians is now ſubject to Ruſſia; but little alteration can have taken place in their manners. The princes cannot poſſeſs lands: the nobles are choſen by the princes from the vaſſals, or third claſs. Public meaſures are propoſed by the prince, and debated by the nobles and deputies of the people, on a ſpot deſtined for this purpoſe, near the royal reſidence. The agriculture of the Circaſſians barely ſuffices for their own conſumption; but they export ſheep, and horſes, and the ſlaves taken in their predatory excurſions. The beauty of the Circaſſian women having been ſo much vaunted, the following extract from a recent and authentic author, may perhaps intereſt the reader.[3]

"Girls are brought up by the mother. They learn to embroider, to make their own dreſs, and that of their future huſbands. The daughters of ſlaves receive the ſame education; and are ſold according to their beauty, from twenty to one hundred pounds, and ſometimes much higher. Theſe are principally Georgians. Soon after the birth

[2] Ellis's Memoir, p. 14. [3] Ib. p. 24, &c.

of

of a girl, a wide leather belt is ſewed round her waiſt, and continues till it burſts, when it is replaced by a ſecond. By a repetition of this practice their waiſts are rendered aſtoniſhingly ſmall; but their ſhoulders become proportionably broad, a defect which is little attended to on account of the beauty of their breaſts. On the wedding night the belt is cut with a dagger by the huſband, a cuſtom ſometimes productive of very fatal accidents. The bridegroom pays for his bride a marriage preſent, or Kalym, conſiſting of arms, or a coat of mail; but he muſt not ſee her, or cohabit with her, without the greateſt myſtery. This reſerve continues during life. A Circaſſian will ſometimes permit a ſtranger to ſee his wife, but he muſt not accompany him. The father makes the bride a preſent on the wedding day, but reſerves the greater part of what he intends to give her till the birth of her firſt child. On this occaſion ſhe pays him a viſit, receives from him the remainder of her portion, and is cloathed by him in the dreſs of a matron, the principal diſtinction of which conſiſts in a veil. Until this time the dreſs of the women is much like that of the men, excepting that the cloak is longer, and frequently white, a colour never worn by men. The cap too is generally red or roſe-coloured. MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

"Before marriage the youth of both ſexes ſee each other freely, at the little rejoicings which take place on feſtivals. Before the ball the young men ſhew their activity, and addreſs, in a variety of military exerciſes; and the moſt alert have the privilege of chuſing the moſt beautiful partners. Their muſical inſtruments are a long flute, with only three ſtops, a ſpecies of mandoline, and a tambourin. Their dances are in the Aſiatic ſtyle, with very little gaiety or expreſſion. The ſteps ſeem very difficult, but not graceful.

"The Circaſſian women participate in the general character of the nation; they take pride in the courage of their huſbands, and reproach them ſeverely when defeated. They poliſh and take care of the armour of the men. Widows tear their hair, and diſfigure themſelves with ſcars, in teſtimony of their grief. The men had formerly the ſame cuſtom; but are now grown more tranquil under the loſs of their wives, and relations. The habitation of a Circaſſian is compoſed of two huts, becauſe the wife and huſband are not ſuppoſed to live together.

Manners and Customs.

gether. One of theſe huts is allotted to the huſband, and to the reception of ſtrangers; the other to the wife and family: the court which ſeparates them is ſurrounded by paliſades, or ſtakes. At meals the whole family is aſſembled; ſo that here, as among the Tartars, each village is reckoned at a certain number of kettles. Their food is extremely ſimple, conſiſting of only of a little meat, ſome paſte made of millet, and a kind of beer compoſed of the ſame grain, fermented."

The Mameluks of Egypt were, as is well-known, ſlaves regularly imported from Circaſſia and Georgia. In Imeritia, Mingrelia, and Guriel, as well as in Georgia, which forms a Perſian province, the barons have power of life and death over their vaſſals; and form a powerful ariſtocracy, formidable to the prince, who reſides at Cutais.[4] The Dadian, or chief of Mingrelia and Guriel, though poſſeſſed of a more extenſive country, is tributary to the former ſovereign. The religion of all is the Greek; and theſe provinces can ſcarcely be regarded as ſubject to Turkey.

In general the moſt ſtriking feature of manners and cuſtoms, in the Turkiſh empire, is that half the people may be conſidered as ſomewhat civilized, while the other half are paſtoral wanderers, ranging over extenſive waſtes. This laxity of government renders travelling in Aſia Minor very unſafe; and has proved a great impediment to any exact geographical knowledge of theſe regions. Under a prudent government the wandering hords of Turcomans, and Kurds would be expelled; and regular troops and garriſons maintained on the frontiers; whence induſtry and the arts might again viſit this claſſical territory.

Cities and Towns. Aleppo.

The capital of the Turkiſh empire has been already deſcribed. Next in dignity and importance is the city of Haleb, or Aleppo, ſuppoſed to contain about 250,000 inhabitants. This city is conſtructed with ſome elegance, and the tall cypreſs trees, contraſted with the white minarets of numerous moſks, give it a moſt pictureſque appearance.[5] The buildings and population ſeem to be on the increaſe; but the adjacent villages are deſerted. The chief languages are the Syrian and Arabic. The manufactures of ſilk and cotton are in a flouriſhing condition; and large caravans frequently arrive from Bagdad and Baſſora,

[4] Ellis's Memoir, p. 57.

[5] Ruſſel's Aleppo. Browne, 384, &c.

charged

charged with the products of Perſia and India; Aleppo being the modern Palmyra. Conſuls from various European powers reſide here, to attend the intereſts of the reſpective nations. CITIES AND TOWNS.

Damaſcus is ſuppoſed to contain about 180,000 ſouls. It was formerly celebrated for the manufacture of ſabres, which ſeem to have been conſtructed, by a method now loſt, of alternate thin layers of iron and ſteel, ſo as to bend even to the hilt without breaking, while the edge would divide the firmeſt mail. When Timur ſubdued Syria, about the beginning of the fifteenth century, he ordered all the artiſts in ſteel to migrate into Perſia. The manufactures now conſiſt of ſilk and cotton, chiefly mingled together; and excellent ſoap is made of oil of olives, with kali and chalk. From the Mediterranean are imported metals and broad cloths: and the caravans of Bagdad bring Perſian and Indian articles. This city alſo increaſes, by the gradual depopulation of the villages and country, which laſt always preſent the chief ſymptoms of national proſperity, or decline. The Paſhalik of Damaſcus is eſteemed the firſt in Aſia; and the office of Paſha has, in the decline of the Turkiſh empire, become in ſome meaſure hereditary, with abſolute power of life and death, and without any appeal. Damaſcus.

Smyrna may be regarded as the third city in Aſiatic Turkey, containing about 120,000 ſouls. This flouriſhing ſeat of European commerce, and chief mart of the Levant trade, is ſaid to have been founded by Alexander the Great, eminently diſtinguiſhed from all other conquerors by the foundation, and not the deſtruction, of cities. In the wars between the Turks and the Greeks Smyrna ſunk into great decline; and was taken with vaſt ſlaughter by Timur in 1402. The excellence of the haven renders Smyrna the centre of all the traffic of Aſia Minor; but the frequent viſits of the peſtilence greatly impede its proſperity.' Smyrna.

Pruſa is a beautiful city, in a romantic ſituation at the northern bottom of mount Olympus. By Tournefort's computation of families the inhabitants may be about 60,000. It is enlivened by numerous ſprings, which deſcend from the mountains, and by the proximity of Pruſa.

[7] Chandler, 65.

the

Cities and Towns.

the hot baths. Pruſa was formerly the choſen reſidence of the ſultans, and contains many of their tombs. Magniſi, or Magneſia, is alſo a city of ſome repute in this quarter of the empire; and Kircagatch has riſen to conſiderable population, from the cultivation of cotton, being about 40 miles to the N. E. of Magniſi, on the route to Pruſa.*

Angora.

Angora may contain 80,000 inhabitants; and is a ſtriking, and agreeable city in a lofty ſituation. The trade is chiefly in yarn, of which our ſhalloons are made; and in their own manufacture of Angora ſtuffs, made chiefly of the fine hair of a particular breed of goats, which, like that of the cats, occurs in no other country. Yet there ſeems no peculiarity in the air, ſituation, or ſoil, which is a fine red marl.

Tokat.

Tokat is alſo a flouriſhing place. The inhabitants are computed at 60,000. The ſituation is ſingular, amidſt rugged and perpendicular rocks of marble; and the ſtreets are paved, which is a rare circumſtance in the Levant. Silk and leather are manufactures of Tokat; but the chief is that of copper utenſils, which are ſent to Conſtantinople, and even to Egypt. The copper is from the mines of Gumiſcana, at the diſtance of three days journey from Trebiſond; and from thoſe of Caſtan Boul, yet richer, and ſituated ten days journey from Tokat, on the weſt towards Angora.[8]

Baſra.

Baſra, or Baſſora, on the eſtuary of the Euphrates, and Tigris, muſt be regarded as rather belonging to an independent Arabian prince, who pays dubious homage to the Porte, but as it has an intimate connexion with Aſiatic Turkey, it may be here briefly mentioned as a city of 50,000 inhabitants, but of great commercial conſequence, being frequented by numerous veſſels from Europe and Aſia, and the ſeat of an

* Hunter's Travels, 1796, 8vo. p. 159. See alſo the map in Peyſſonnel's journey from Smyrna to Sardes, and Thyatira, at the end of his Obſervations Hiſtoriques et Geographiques, &c. Paris, 1765, 4to. This journey is full of inſcriptions and antiquities, like moſt of thoſe to the Levant, and of courſe contains very little ſolid information. Voyages to the Levant, as they are called, are indeed of all others the moſt common, and the moſt vague and uninſtructive. A few uſeleſs inſcriptions, and a thouſand quotations from the claſſics, or deſcriptions of Egypt and Syria, repeating what has been repeated a hundred times before, conſtitute what is called a voyage to the Levant. If an able traveller were to inveſtigate the geography, natural hiſtory, and other topics of real importance in Aſia Minor only, he would ſupply many deficiencies in modern knowledge.

[8] Tournefort, ii. 324.

Engliſh conſul. Here the various products of Europe and India are exchanged for thoſe of Perſia; and opulent caravans proceed to the chief cities of Aſiatic Turkey, to all which it is the moſt central port of the more oriental trade. Cities and Towns.

The great and romantic Bagdad, the ſeat of the Califs, and the ſcene of many eaſtern fictions, has now dwindled into a town of about 20,000 inhabitants. Not far to the ſouth are ſome ruins of the celebrated Babylon, which have been ably illuſtrated in a recent work of Major Rennell.[9] Bagdad.

Many an important city of antiquity has ſunk into a village, and even the village often into a maſs of rubbiſh, under the deſtructive domination of the Turks, perhaps the only people whoſe ſole occupation has been to deſtroy. The maps are crowded with many names, now only known by miſerable hamlets; and an enumeration which would ſeem ſhort may yet be complete. The ancient and celebrated city of Jeruſalem is reduced to a mean town, chiefly exiſting by the piety of pilgrims. Towards the frontiers of Perſia the ravages of frequent war have ſpread additional deſtruction; yet Erzeron, the capital of Armenia, retains about 25,000 inhabitants. Kars, the extreme town upon the frontiers of Perſia, is tolerably fortified; but is an inconſiderable place.[10]

The chief manufactures of Aſiatic Turkey have been already incidentally mentioned in the preceding account of the cities; to which may be added the excellent carpets ſo frequent in England. Theſe, with rhubarb, and ſeveral other drugs, may be regarded as the chief articles of commerce. Manufactures.

The Levant, or Turkey, trade was formerly of great conſequence to Great Britain; but ſince the middle of laſt century has been more advantageous to France. Sir James Porter, formerly ambaſſador at Conſtantinople, has publiſhed ſeveral important obſervations on this ſubject.[11] He remarks that many of the ſtems of our nobility ſprung from this great root of opulence; for in former times the Turkey merchants

[9] Geography of Herodotus. [10] Tournefort, ii. 217.

[11] Obſervations on the Turks, 1771, 8vo, p. 361.

Manufactures.

were the moſt rich and reſpectable body of men in the city. The capitulations of this commerce, ſo called becauſe they were mere conceſſions granted by the Porte, date from the reign of Elizabeth. Though the charter were granted to a company there was no common ſtock; but each individual traded in his own way, and upon his own fund. There was a code of regulations: the ſhips were ſent annually: and no bullion was allowed to be remitted to Turkey. The decline of this trade appears, from the account of this author, to have ariſen from ſeveral injudicious bills brought into parliament, which from their ſeverity induced the merchants to export cloth of an inferior quality. Yet as he confeſſes that the trade had declined, before the ſtatutes had paſſed, it ſeems reaſonable to infer, that the avarice of ſome traders was the real cauſe of the inferiority of our articles to thoſe of the French, who artfully availed themſelves of the opportunity, and by ſtrict regulations maintained their ſuperiority. In the period from 1729 to 1738 the Engliſh cloth ſent to Conſtantinople amounted annually to 574 bales; while from 1739 to 1748 it had fallen to 236 bales. For the nature and cauſes of the decline of our Turkey trade, and the aſcendancy of that of the French, the reader, who wiſhes for minute information, muſt be referred to the ſame judicious traveller.

CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seaſons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Foreſts.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Mineral Waters.—Natural Curioſities.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.

THE climate of Aſia Minor has always been conſidered as excellent. There is a peculiar ſoftneſs and ſerenity in the air, not perceivable on the European ſide of the Archipelago. The heat of the ſummer is conſiderably tempered by the numerous chains of high mountains, ſome of which are ſaid to be covered with perpetual ſnow.

Face of the Country.

The general appearance of Aſiatic Turkey may be regarded as mountainous; but intermingled with large and beautiful plains, which, inſtead of being covered with rich crops of grain, are paſtured by the numerous flocks and herds of the Turcomans. The ſoil, as may be expected, is extremely various; but that of Aſia Minor is chiefly a deep clay; and wheat, barley, and durra form the chief, if not the only products of agriculture.[1] But excellent grapes and olives abound; and the ſouthern provinces are fertile in dates. In Syria the agriculture is in the moſt deplorable condition; and the inſtruments, and management are alike execrable. The peaſants are in the moſt miſerable ſituation; and though not ſold with the ſoil, like thoſe of Poland, are, if poſſible, yet more oppreſſed; barley bread, onions, and water conſtituting their conſtant fare.[2]

Agriculture.

Rivers.

The principal river of Aſiatic Turkey is, beyond all compariſon, the Euphrates, which riſes from the mountains of Armenia, a few miles to

Euphrates.

[1] Browne, 418. [2] Volney, ii. 413.

Rivers. the N. E. of Erzeron;[3] and chiefly purſues a S. W. direction to Semiſat, where it would fall into the Mediterranean, if not prevented by a high range of mountains. In this part of its courſe the Euphrates is joined by the Morad from the eaſt, a ſtream almoſt doubling in length that of Euphrates; ſo that the latter river might more juſtly be ſaid to ſpring from mount Ararat, about 160 Britiſh miles to the eaſt of the imputed ſource. At Semiſat, the ancient Samoſata, this noble river aſſumes a ſoutherly direction; then runs an extenſive courſe to the S. E., and after receiving the Tigris, falls by two or three mouths into the gulph of Perſia. The comparative courſe of the Euphrates may be eſtimated at about 1400 Britiſh miles.

Tigris. Next in importance is the Tigris, which riſes to the north of Medan, about 150 miles ſouth from the ſources of the Euphrates, and purſues nearly a regular direction S. E. till it join the Euphrates below Korna, about 60 miles to the north of Baſſora; after a comparative courſe of about 800 miles. The Euphrates, and the Tigris, are both navigable for a conſiderable diſtance from the ſea.

Kizil Irmak. The third river in Aſiatic Turkey is that called by the Turks Kizil Irmak, the celebrated Halys of antiquity; riſing in mount Taurus not far from Erekli, but by other accounts more to the eaſt, and, purſuing a winding courſe to the north, nearly acroſs the whole of Aſia Minor, till it join the Euxine ſea on the weſt of the gulph of Sanſoun. The

Sacaria. river Sacaria, the ancient Sangarius, or Sangaris, riſes about 50 miles to the ſouth of Angora, and running to the N. W. joins the Euxine, about 70 miles to the eaſt of Conſtantinople.

Meander. In the next rank may be placed the claſſical river of Mæander, riſing to the north of the ancient city of Apamia, and running, in a winding ſtream, about 250 Britiſh miles. Dr. Chandler has obſerved that Wheler, otherwiſe a moſt accurate and intelligent traveller, has miſtaken a tributary ſtream for the real Mæander;* which is called by the Turks Boyuc Minder, or the Great Mæander, to diſtinguiſh it from this little

[3] Tournefort, ii. 198.

* This little ſtream, whoſe windings rival thoſe of the river, flows due ſouth, and joins the Meander near its mouth, after a courſe of about 40 Britiſh miles.

 ſtream,

ſtream, which reſembles it in mazes. The Minder, not far from its mouth, is about 100 feet broad; with a ſwift, muddy, and extremely deep current, having received a conſiderable acceſſion of waters from the lake of Myus. Rivers.

The Sarabat, or ancient Hermus, renowned for its golden ſands, joins the Archipelago about 90 Britiſh miles to the north of the Minder, after a courſe of ſimilar length. Sarabat.

The other rivers of Aſia Minor are far more inconſiderable, though many of them be celebrated in claſſical hiſtory and poetry.

The chief river of Syria is the Orontes, now called Oron or Aſi, riſing about 80 miles to the N. of Damaſcus, and running nearly due north till it ſuddenly turn S. E. near Antioch, after which it ſoon joins the Mediterranean. Orontes.

Aſiatic Turkey alſo contains numerous lakes. That of Van in the north of Kurdiſtan, is the moſt remarkable, being about 80 Britiſh miles in length from N. E. to S. W., and about 40 in breadth: it is ſaid to abound with fiſh. This great lake, with that of Urmiah in Perſia, about 100 miles to the S. E., appears to have been little noted in ancient geography; and D'Anville does not ſeem to have conſidered the difficulty, though the lake of Van may be the Thoſpitis of antiquity; but his maps and diſquiſitions are open to many improvements from recent accounts.* Lakes. Van.

In Syria what is called the Dead Sea may be regarded as a lake of about 50 miles in length, and 12 or 13 in breadth. The lake of Rackama, to the ſouth of Hilla and the ancient Babylon, is about 30 miles in length, and flows into the Euphrates. Dead Sea.

Towards the centre of Aſia Minor there is a remarkable ſaline lake, about 70 miles in length, and a mile or two in breadth, being the Tatta or Palus Salſa of D'Anville's ancient geography.

Numerous other ſmall lakes appear in Natolia, among which may be particularly mentioned that of Ulubad, anciently ſtyled the lake of Apollonia, which according to Tournefort is about 25 miles in circum- Ulubad.

* From Ptolemy it may be concluded that the lake of Urmiah is the Arſiſſa of antiquity; but when he derives the Tigris from the lake Thoſpitis he probably means the ſmall lake of Gurgick, near the real ſource of the Tigris.

ference,

Rivers. ference, and in ſome places ſeven or eight miles wide, ſprinkled with ſeveral iſles and ſome peninſulas, being a grand receptacle of the waters from mount Olympus.[a] The largeſt iſle is about three miles in circuit, and is called Abouillona, probably from the ancient name of the city which ſtood on it. About 50 miles to the N. E. was the lake called Aſcanius by the ancients, now that of Iſnik.

Mountains. Many of the mountains of Aſiatic Turkey deſerve particular attention, from their ancient celebrity. The firſt rank is due to the Taurian chain of antiquity, which was conſidered as extending from the neighbourhood of the Archipelago to the ſources of the Ganges, and the extremities of Aſia, ſo far as diſcovered by the ancients. But this notion little accords with the deſcriptions of modern travellers, or the reſearches of recent geography; and we might perhaps with equal juſtice infer that the Carpathian mountains, the Alps, and the Pyrenees conſtitute one chain. Science is equally impeded by joining what ought to be divided, as by dividing what ought to be joined. The Caucaſian mountains have been well delineated by the Ruſſian travellers, as forming a range from the mouth of the river Cuban, in the N. W., to where the river Kur enters the Caſpian, in the S. E. The remaining intelligence is dubious and defective; but it would ſeem that, in reſemblance of the Pyrenees, a chain extends from Caucaſus S. W. to near the bay of Scanderoon. This ridge ſeems the Anti Taurus of antiquity: but various parts of it were known by different names, as marked in D'Anville's map of Aſia Minor. At the other extremity of the Caucaſus other chains branch out into Perſia, which they pervade from N. W. to S. E., but they may all be juſtly conſidered as terminating in the deſarts of the ſouth eaſtern part of Perſia; or as having ſo imperfect a connexion with the mountains of Hindoo Koh, which ſupply the weſtern ſources of the Indus, that it would be mere theory to regard them as a continued chain.

Taurus. Far leſs can they be regarded as an extenſion of Mont Taurus, which, on the contrary, terminates at the Euphrates and deſarts of Algezira. Of this the ancients were aware; and in their fondneſs for the Taurus

[a] ii. 363.

repreſented

repreſented it as winding like an immenſe ſnake, by the Anti Taurus to the Caucaſus, thus including the latter in the Taurian chain. Such ideas would only introduce confuſion into geography: and modern preciſion will be contented to obſerve that the chain of Taurus, now called Kurun, perhaps from the old Greek name Ceraunus, extends for about 600 miles E. and W. from the Euphrates to near the ſhores of the Archipelago. A recent traveller found the aſcent and deſcent, between Aintab and Boſtan, to occupy three days; and the heights abound with cedars, ſavines, and junipers. It is probable that theſe, and the other mountains of Aſiatic Turkey, are calcareous; while the Caucaſus alone aſpires to the rank of a granitic or primitive chain. Mountains.

Towards the eaſt of Armenia is Ararat, of which we have a deſcription by Tournefort;[5] and from his account it ſeems chiefly to conſiſt of free-ſtone or calcareous ſandſtone. It is a detached mountain, with two ſummits; the higheſt being covered with eternal ſnow. In one of the flanks is an abyſs, or precipice, of prodigious depth, the ſides being perpendicular, and of a rough black appearance, as if tinged with ſmoke. This mountain belongs to Perſia, but is here mentioned on account of connexion. Ararat.

Beyond Ararat are branches of the Caucaſian chain; to which, as is probable, belong the mountains of Elwend, which ſeem to be the Niphates of antiquity.

In Syria the moſt celebrated mountain is that of Lebanon, or Libanus, running in the ſoutherly and northerly direction of the Mediterranean ſhore, and generally at the diſtance of about 30 or 40 miles. The Anti Libanus is a ſhort detached chain, running nearly parallel on the eaſt. Theſe mountains are of conſiderable height, the ſummits being often covered with ſnow; and they ſeem to be calcareous, the granite not appearing till the neighbourhood of Mount Sinai and the Arabian gulph. Libanus.

The eaſtern ſide of the Archipelago preſents many mountains of great height and claſſical fame, chiefly in ranges extending from N. to S. Of theſe Olympus (now Keſhik Dag) is one of the moſt celebrated, and is deſcribed by Tournefort as a vaſt range covered with perpetual ſnow. Olympus.

[5] ii. 267, &c.

He

Mountains. He ſays that a day's journey would be required to viſit the ſummit of the mountain; and adds that it is one of the higheſt in Aſia. Many ſmall ſtreams ſpring from Olympus, and the large lake of Ullabad is another receptacle of its waters.

Ida. About 140 miles to the weſt of Olympus riſes mount Ida, of great though not equal height. The ſummit of Ida was by the ancients called Garganus; from which extend weſtern prominences reaching to the Helleſpont, and amidſt them ſtood the celebrated city of Troy: Garganus, or the ſummit of Ida, being about 30 miles from the ſhore; and giving ſource to the Granicus, the Simois, and other noted ſtreams, moſt of which run to the north.

Other remarkable mountains on this claſſical ſhore were thoſe of Rhea, at an equal diſtance between Ida and Olympus. Mount Pedaſus ſeems merely the ſouthern extremity of Rhea. Farther to the ſouth the mountains may perhaps be conſidered as branching from the Taurus, ſuch as the range which paſſes from the head of the Mæander, and forms the promontory oppoſite to Scio, known in different diſtricts by the ancient names of Meſſogis, Tmolus, Sipylus, Corycus, and Mimas; while another branch paſſes along the ſhore to the mouth of the Mæander, preſenting the heights of Corax, Galleſus, and Mycale, the laſt oppoſite to Samos.

To the ſouth of the Minder, or Mæander, the Taurus detaches a chain, called Cadmus and Grius, bending towards the iſle of Cos and the Cyclades.

Foreſts. Theſe numerous mountains in Aſiatic Turkey are often clothed with immenſe foreſts of pines, oaks, beeches, elms, and other trees. The ſouthern ſhores of the Black Sea alſo preſent many gloomy foreſts of great extent. This abundance of timber ſupplies the inhabitants with fuel; nor has pit coal been explored in any part of Aſiatic Turkey. Sometimes conflagrations ariſe, from the heedleſs waſte of the caravans, who, inſtead of cutting off a few branches, will ſet fire to a ſtanding tree.

Botany. The extenſive provinces of Natolia, Syria, and Meſopotamia, ſince their reduction under the Turkiſh yoke, have been but little acceſſible

to

to European curioſity. The natural productions of Syria however, have been inveſtigated, though imperfectly, by ſeveral naturaliſts of eminence, while the mountains and rich vales of Natolia towards the great Caucaſian chain are almoſt wholly unknown. Theſe countries having been inhabited and civilized from the remoteſt antiquity, poſſeſſing for the moſt part a dry rocky ſoil, with fewer rivers than any tract in Europe of equal extent, contain none of thoſe low ſwampy levels that form ſo characteriſtic a feature in almoſt all the American countries, that compoſe the greater part of Holland, and occupy no ſmall proportion of Hungary and the dominions north of the Baltic. Thoſe vegetables therefore that inhabit ſwamps, lakes, and bogs, will be very ſparingly found in the flora of Aſiatic Turkey; nor will the indigenous alpine plants be more numerous; not indeed on account of the abſence of high mountains, but from their having been hitherto almoſt entirely unexamined. Of the ſcanty catalogue of plants that have been found wild in the Aſiatic part of the Ottoman territory, the following are the moſt worthy of notice: BOTANY.

Among the trees may be diſtinguiſhed, olea europæa, *the olive tree*, abounding throughout the whole Archipelago and the ſhores of the Levant; ſalix Babylonica, the *weeping willow*, graceful with its ſlender pendent branches, which has adorned the banks of the Euphrates from time immemorial; elæagnus anguſtifolius, *wild olive*, bearing a ſmall ſweet eſculent fruit; betula alnus, the *alder;* morus albus, the *white mulberry;* cercis ſiliquaſtrum, remarkable for its long ſeedpods; zygophyllum fabago, *berry bearing tea*; melia azedarach, the *bead tree;* ſtyrax officinalis, *ſtorax tree*, from which exudes the fragrant gum reſin of the ſame name; punica granatum, *pomegranate*; meſpilus pyracantha: amygdalus communis, *almond tree*, and amygdalus perſica, *peach tree*; ceraſus ſativus, *cherry*, a native of Pontus in Natolia, whence it was brought to Rome by Lucullus; citrus limon and aurantium, the *lemon and orange*; cytiſus laburnum, and myrtus communis, *myrtle*, growing plentifully by the ſide of running ſtreams; muſa paradiſaica, *plantain tree;* rhamnus paliurus; vitis vinifera, *vine*, in a perfectly wild ſtate, climbing up the higheſt trees, and forming verdant grottos among its ample feſtoons; piſtachia lentiſcus, terebinthus

Botany. and vera, the *maſtich*, *chio turpentine*, and *piſtachia nut tree*; ceratonia ſiliqua, *carob*; juniperus drupacea and oxycedrus, two of the largeſt ſpecies of this genus nearly equalling the cypress in height, and found upon Mount Caſſius and other rocky hills in Syria; cupreſſus ſempervirens, *cypreſs*; thuia orientalis, pinus cedrus, *the cedar*, a few large trees of which ſtill remain on Mount Lebanon, the venerable relics of its ſacred foreſts. Hibiſcus Syriacus, diſtinguiſhed by the uncommon ſplendour of its bloſſoms, and on this account much cultivated about Conſtantinople and other parts of the Turkiſh empire, where it does not grow ſpontaneouſly; ficus carica, *fig tree*; ficus ſycomorus, *ſycamore fig*, abounding in Paleſtine and other parts of Syria; phœnix dactylifera, *date tree*; quercus cerris, *prickly cupped oak*, from which are procured the fineſt Aleppo galls; laurus indica; platanus orientalis, *oriental plane tree*, highly eſteemed for its ſhady tent-like canopy of foliage. Mimoſa arborea; carpinus oſtrya, *hop hornbeam*; and meniſpermum cocculus, the berries of which, commonly called cocculus indicus, are much uſed by the natives for taking fiſh, on account of their narcotic qualities.

Of the lower trees and flowering ſhrubs the principal are ſyringa vulgaris, *lilac*, abounding on the banks of the Euphrates; jaſminum fruticoſa and officinalis, *yellow and common jaſmine*, found plentifully in the thickets and woods of Syria; the long hollow ſtems of the latter of theſe are in great requeſt among the inhabitants, as ſtems to their tobacco pipes; ruta fruticuloſa and linifolia, two ſpecies of *rue*, the former of which is rather uncommon, and has been chiefly found about Damaſcus; arbutus unedo, *arbute*; prunus proſtrata, a trailing ſhrub, the ſmalleſt of the *plum* kind, covering the rocks near the ſummit of Mount Lebanon; Spartium junceum and ſpinoſum, *Spaniſh* and *thorny broom*, occupying many of the ſandy tracts that are of ſuch frequent occurrence in Syria; nerium oleander, a common ornament of every rivulet; tamarix gallica, *tamariſk*; rhus cotinus; lycium europæum, *boxthorn*; oſyris alba, *poet's caſſia*; erica ſcoparia, with many other kinds of *heath*; laurus nobilis, *baytree*; capparis ſpinoſa, *caper buſh*; ſeveral ſpecies of ciſtus, eſpecially the *ſage-leaved* and *gum ciſtus*; and euphorbia

euphorbia mauritanica, *mauritanian ſpurge*, with the acrid juice of which the ſcammony is not unfrequently adulterated. Botany.

Several dying drugs and articles of the materia medica are imported from the Levant, among which may be particularized rubia tinctorum, *madder*; a variety of this, called alizari, is largely cultivated around Smyrna, which yields a much finer red dye than the European kind, and to this the ſuperiority of the Greek and Turkiſh reds is principally to be aſcribed; ſmilax aſpera; mirabilis jalapa, *jalap*; convolvulus ſcammonia, *ſcammony*; cordia myxa, *ſebeſten*; croton tinctorium: ricinus communis, the ſeed of which yields by expreſſion the *caſtor oil*; momordica elaterium, *ſquirting cucumber*; cucumis colocynthis, *coloquintida*; papaver ſomniferum, *opium poppy*; ſeſamum orientale; and coſtus Arabicus, *ſpikenard*.

A few eſculent plants not commonly made uſe of elſewhere are the produce of Natolia and Syria, ſuch as ſolanum melongena, *mad-apple*; cyperus eſculentus, the large aromatic root of which is much eſteemed; corchorus olitorius, *Jews' mallow*; arum colocaſia, remarkable for its ſweet farinaceous root, while thoſe of its kindred ſpecies are intolerably acrid.

The following vegetables are remarkable either for their beauty or ſingularity: exoacantha heterophylla, an umbelliferous plant diſtinguiſhed by its uncommonly thorny involucrum, found in the vicinity of Nazareth; dianthus Libanotis, Lebanon pink; anthyllis tragacanthoides, a rare plant found on Lebanon, and eminently beautiful with its long cluſters of purple papilonaceous flowers; amaryllis montana, alſo a native of Lebanon; aſphodelus ramoſus, branched aſphodel; lilium album and bulbiferum, *white* and *orange lily*; narciſſus tazetta; ornithogalum umbellatum, *ſtar of Bethlehem*; hyacinthus orientalis, *oriental hyacinth*; xeranthemum frigidum, a beautiful plant growing cloſe to the ſnow on Mount Lebanon; hyoſciamus aureus, *golden henbane*; phyſalis alkekengi, *winter cherry*; atropa mandragora; calla orientalis; arum intortum; origanum heracleoticum and creticum, *cretan origany*; ſalvia acetabuloſa; thymus maſtychina; and anaſtatica hierochuntica, *roſe of Jericho*.

Zoology. The beſt horſes in Aſiatic Turkey are of Arabian extract, and are ſparingly fed with a little barley and minced ſtraw, to accuſtom them to abſtinence and fatigue; but mules and aſſes are in more general uſe. Concerning the breed of cattle little is mentioned by travellers, but it ſeems inferior to thoſe of Europe; and beef is ſcarce and bad. The mutton is ſuperior; and the kid is a favourite repaſt.*

In Aſiatic Turkey appears that king of ferocious animals called the lion, which is unknown to any region of Europe, and even to Aſiatic Ruſſia. Yet he rarely roams to the weſt of the Euphrates: but Tournefort obſerved many tigers on mount Ararat. He muſt mean the ſmall tiger, or perhaps the leopard or the mountain cat; for the royal or large tiger ſeems to be reſtricted to the waſtes of Hindoſtan. The hyæna, and the wild boar, are known animals of Aſia Minor; and the jackal ranges in troops, which raiſe dreadful cries in the night, but the fable of their accompanying the lion is juſtly exploded. The cities and villages ſwarm with dogs, who are allowed to wander, as a conſtant defence againſt ſtrangers or enemies.

The ibex, or rock goat, appears on the ſummits of Caucaſus. The ſingular goats and cats of Angora have been already mentioned. The gazel, a kind of antelope, is alſo an inhabitant of Aſia Minor; with numerous deer and hares. The partridges are generally of the red legged kind, about a third larger than the common European. Of fiſh there are numerous names, and many of them are excellent. The difficulties of travelling have conſiderably abridged our knowledge of the zoology of theſe various regions, Haſſelquiſt, the diſciple of Linnæus, having paſſed from Smyrna to Alexandria, and chiefly occupied himſelf in the natural hiſtory of Paleſtine and Egypt.

Mineralogy. The mineralogy of thoſe extenſive and mountainous provinces remains in a deplorable ſtate of imperfection. Ancient Lydia was famous for the production of gold; but in modern times no mines ſeem to be indicated, except thoſe of copper which ſupply Tokat. The indolence of the Turks, or indeed their induſtry in deſtruction, is alike inimical to metallurgy and agriculture. Haſſelquiſt obſerved lead and

* Haſſelquiſt, p. 192, ſays that the ſheep of Anti Libanus have ſometimes a cruſt on their teeth, with the perfect appearance of yellow pyrites. It is imputed to the graſs or lucern.

copper ore, with rock cryſtals, in the iſland of Cyprus. But his account of oriental minerals only contains whetſtone and natron, both Egyptian; and he informs us that Moſes muſt have inſcribed the laws on granite, which conſtitutes mount Oreb and mount Sinai.[6] The mountains of Judæa, he ſays, are of a very hard limeſtone of a yellowiſh white; and towards the eaſt of a looſe grey limeſtone. If ſuch be the profound obſervations of a naturaliſt, what is to be expected from other travellers? Mineralogy.

The moſt noted mineral waters are thoſe of Pruſa, at the bottom of mount Olympus. The baths are ſplendid, and paved with marble, with two reſervoirs or rather ciſterns for bathing, one for the men, another for the women. The water ſmokes continually, and is ſo hot as to ſcald the hand; but in the baths it is mingled with cold water from the numerous ſtreams of Olympus. There are many other hot ſprings in different quarters of Natolia. Mineral Waters.

The natural curioſities, and ſingular features, of ſo mountainous a country, muſt be numerous; but as ſuch ſeldom occur in the beaten tracks, and there is no ſafety in viſiting diſtant receſſes, the choſen haunts of banditti, it is no wonder that this topic is left barren by travellers. The beautiful mazes of the Minder have been celebrated from early antiquity; and it is probable that the large ſalt lake, in the centre of Aſia Minor, might afford a curious object of inveſtigation. Dr. Chandler[7] deſcribes the ſingular cliff near Pambouk or Hierapolis, produced by the hot petrifying waters, and reſembling an immenſe frozen caſcade, as if the water had been fixed and ſuddenly converted to ſtone. In the ſame vicinity is a cave remarkable for pernicious effluvia. Natural Curioſities.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO ASIATIC TURKEY.

The chief iſlands in the Archipelago, conſidered as belonging to Aſia, are Mytilene, Scio, Samos, Cos, and Rhodes.

[6] P. 292. [7] P. 230.

Mytilene,

Islands. Mytilene.

Mytilene, the ancient Leſbos, is the moſt northerly and largeſt of theſe iſles, being about 40 Britiſh miles in length by 24 at its greateſt breadth. The mountainous appearance of this iſle is agreeably diverſified with bays, and inlets of the ſea, and plantations of olives, vines, and myrtle.[1] There are hot baths iſſuing from cliffs reſembling thoſe of St. Vincent near Briſtol, and which indicate the iſle to be chiefly calcareous. The climate is exquiſite; and it was anciently noted for wines, and the beauty of the women.

Scio.

Scio, the ancient Chios, is about 36 Britiſh miles in length, but only about 13 in medial breadth. The Chian wine is celebrated by Horace, and retains its ancient fame. The town of Scio, on the eaſt ſide of the iſle, is handſome and convenient. The Greeks here enjoy conſiderable freedom and eaſe; and diſplay ſuch induſtry that the country reſembles a garden. This particular favour ariſes from the cultivation of the maſtic trees, or rather ſhrubs, for they are ſmall evergreens which ſupply the gum, ſo acceptable to the ladies of the ſultan's haram, or, as we term it, the ſeraglio. The beauty of the women is confined to one form of features, as in the Grecian ſtatues; and even the clearneſs of their complexion cannot atone for the prepoſterous form of their dreſs, which is here, if poſſible, more ridiculous than in the other Egean iſles. Pococke's figure of Homer, which he pretends to have found here, is imaginary; and the original ſeems to be an image of Cybele. This iſle is alſo very mountainous. The earth of Scio was celebrated by the ancients, but was only a common bole like that of Lemnos. Tournefort obſerved here tame partridges, kept like poultry; and it is probable the cuſtom is retained, for among the Turks every thing is ſtationary, except deſtruction. Chandler ſaw numerous groves of lemons, oranges, and citrons, perfuming the air with the odour of their bloſſoms, and delighting the eye with their golden fruit. The Genoeſe poſſeſſed this beautiful iſle about 240 years, but loſt it in 1566. Oppoſite to Scio, on the Aſiatic ſhore, is Cheſmé, where the Turkiſh fleet was deſtroyed by the Ruſſian, 1770. The inhabitants of Scio are ſuppoſed to be about 60,000.[2]

[1] Dallaway's Conſtantinople, p. 313.

[2] Tournefort, p. 281. Van Egmont, i. 237, &c. Chandler, 48.

Samos

Samos is about 30 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. This isle is also crossed by a chain of hills, and the most agreeable part is the plain of Cora. Tournefort computes the inhabitants at 12,000, all Greeks; with a Turkish Aga or military officer, and a cadi or judge, magistrates usual in every Turkish district. The women are celebrated for their complete want of beauty, thus forming a remarkable exception to the other Greek isles. The pottery of Samos was anciently excellent; at present most branches of industry are neglected; but nitre, emery, and iron, might still be worked. Pitch is prepared from the pine trees in the north part of the island; and the silk, honey, and wax, are esteemed. Most of the mountains are of white marble, and swarm with game of various descriptions. The best haven is that of Vati to the N. W. Some remains are observed of the celebrated temple of Juno.[3] Islands. Samos.

Cos is about 24 miles in length, by three or four in breadth; but has been little visited by modern travellers. Pliny styles Cos a most noble isle; and from it was first derived the name and substance of the whetstone. It is now covered with groves of lemon trees, and there is an oriental plane tree of vast size. The chief trade is in oranges and lemons; and Cos is the residence of a Turkish pasha.[4] Rhodes is about 36 British miles in length, by 15 in breadth, an island celebrated in ancient and modern times. It is fertile in wheat, though the soil be of a sandy nature. The population is computed at about 30,000. The city of the same name, in which no Christian is now permitted to dwell, stands in the north end of the isle; and was anciently noted for a colossus in bronze, about 130 feet high, which could not have stood over the harbour as fabled, for it was soon cast down by an earthquake, and the fragments many centuries afterwards were sold by the Saracens; while if it had stood over the port it must have fallen into the sea.[5] This isle was for two centuries possessed by the knights of St. John of Jerusalem; thence styled of Rhodes, till 1523, when it was taken by the Turks; and the emperor Charles V assigned to the knights the island of Malta.[6] Rhodes.

Along the southern shore of Asia Minor there are some small isles, among which is that of Castel Rosso, S. E. of Patira. But they are of

[3] Tournefort, i. 307. Dallaway, 251.
[4] Van Egmont, i. 262.
[5] Gibbon, ix. 425.
[6] Van Egmont, i. 268, who gives a long description of Rhodes.

Islands. Cyprus.

no moment, when compared with the large and celebrated iſland of Cyprus, which is about 160 Britiſh miles in length, and about 70 at its greateſt breadth. It was long poſſeſſed by the Ptolemies of Egypt, till it fell under the Roman power; when it remained a portion of the Byzantine empire, till it was uſurped by a Greek prince, who was expelled by Richard I of England. This monarch beſtowed the kingdom of Cyprus on the houſe of Luſignan, as a compenſation for the loſs of the throne of Jeruſalem. In the fifteenth century the heireſs of the houſe of Luſignan reſigned this iſle to the Venetians; but in 1570 it was ſeized by the Turks. The ſoil is fertile, yet agriculture in a neglected ſtate. The oxen are lean and of a ſmall ſize: the ſheep are of a better deſcription. The chief products are ſilk, cotton, wines, turpentine, and timber. The wine of Cyprus is deſervedly celebrated. The oranges are excellent; and the mountains are covered with hyacinths and anemonies, and other beautiful flowers. Cyprus is ſuppoſed to have derived its name from the abundance of copper ore; and it is ſaid to have anciently produced gold, ſilver, and emeralds. What is called the Paphian diamond is a rock cryſtal, found near Paphos; and there is a quarry of amianthus, while ſeveral hills conſiſt chiefly of talc. The other mineral productions are red jaſper, agates, green earth, and umber. The Cypriots are a tall and elegant race; but the chief beauty of the women conſiſts in their ſparkling eyes. To the diſgrace of the Turkiſh government the population of this extenſive iſland is computed at 50,000 ſouls! Cyprus is pervaded by a chain of mountains, among which is a third *Olympus*, ſome primitive name, which ſeems to have been general for a mountain of great height. Van Egmont ſays that there is not one river in the iſland, he means that continues its courſe in the ſummer; but that there are many ponds, lakes, and fens, producing a damp and malignant air. The chief cities are Nicoſia, the capital and reſidence of the governor, and Famaguſta.[7]

[7] Van Egmont, i. 281. Mariti, &c.

RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Names.—Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Population.—Progreſſive Geography.—Hiſtorical Epochs and Antiquities.

THIS large portion of the habitable globe extends almoſt the whole length of Aſia, from about the 37th degree of longitude eaſt of London to more than 190°; or 170 of weſtern longitude. As the northern latitude is very high, the degree ſhall only be aſſumed at 30 miles; and the length may thus be computed at 4590 geographical miles. The greateſt breadth from the cape of Cevero Voſtochnoi, called in ſome maps Taimura, to the Altaian chain of mountains on the ſouth of the ſea of Baikal, may be 28°, or 1680 geographical miles. In Britiſh miles the length may be roughly computed at 5350; and the breadth at 1960: an extent which will be found to exceed that of Europe.* EXTENT.

The furtheſt eaſtern boundary is that of Aſia, and the ſeas of Kamchatka and Ochotſk; while the northern is the Arctic Ocean. On the BOUNDARIES.

* Mr. Tooke, in his View of the Ruſſian Empire, computes the whole, including the European part, at 9,200 Engliſh miles in length, and 2,400 in breadth.

Boundaries. weſt the frontiers correſpond with thoſe between Aſia and Europe. The ſouthern limits require more explanation. The river Cuban, part of the Caucaſian chain, and an ideal line, divide the Ruſſian territory from Turkey and Perſia. The boundary then aſcends along the north of the Caſpian through the ſtepp or deſart of Iſſim, and the eaſtern ſhore of the river Ob, to where it iſſues from the Altaian mountains, when it meets the vaſt empire of China; and proceeds along that chain to the ſources of the Onon, where it includes a conſiderable region called Daouria, extending about 200 miles in breadth, to the ſouth of the mountains called Yablonnoy; the limit between Ruſſia and Chineſe Tatary being partly an ideal line, and partly the river Argoon, which joined with the Onon conſtitutes the great river Amur. Thence the boundary returns to the mountainous chain, and follows a branch of it to a promontory on the north of the mouth of the Amur.

Original Population. The population of Aſiatic Ruſſia may be regarded as wholly primitive, except a few Ruſſian colonies recently planted, and the Techuks in the part oppoſite to America, who have been ſuppoſed to have proceeded from that continent, as already mentioned, becauſe their perſons and cuſtoms are different from thoſe of the other Aſiatic tribes. Next to the Techuks, in the furtheſt north, are the Yukagirs, a branch of the Yakuts,* and yet further weſt the Samoieds. To the ſouth of the Techuks are the Coriaks, a branch of the ſame race: and yet further ſouth the Kamchadals, a diſtinct people, who ſpeak a different language. The Lamuts are a part of the Mandſhurs or Tunguſes, who have been vaguely called Tartars or Tatars, though they neither belong to that race nor to the Monguls. The Tunguſes are widely diffuſed between the Yeniſei and the Amur: and the ſouthern tribes ruled by a khan or monarch, conquered China in the ſeventeenth century. The Oſtiaks, and other tribes of Samoieds, have penetrated conſiderably to the ſouth between the Yeniſei and the Irtiſh, and are followed by various tribes of the Monguls, as the Calmucs, Burats, &c., and by thoſe of the Tatars

* The Yakuts are expelled Tatars from the ſouth, as the Ruſſian writers decide from their language, traditions, and manners. The far greater part of the Monguls and Mandſhurs are ſubject to China: and the Tatars are beſt obſerved in Independent Tatary.

or

or Huns as the Teluts, Kirguſes, and others. The radically diſtinct languages amount to ſeven, independent of many dialects and mixtures.* ORIGINAL POPULATION.

The vaſt extent of northern Aſia was firſt known by the name of Sibir or Siberia; but this appellation ſeems gradually to paſs into diſuſe. When the Monguls eſtabliſhed a kingdom in theſe northern regions, the firſt reſidence of the princes was on the river Tura, on the ſpot where now ſtands the town of Tiumen, about 180 miles S. W. of Tobolſk.' But the khans afterwards moved to the eaſtern ſhore of the Irtiſh, where they founded the city of Iſker near Tobolſk. This new reſidence was alſo called Sibir, from what etymon or cauſe is not explained; and the name of the city paſſed to the Mongul principality.† When the Ruſſians began the conqueſt of the country, being unconſcious of its extent, the name of this weſtern province was gradually diffuſed over half of Aſia. Names.

The progreſſive geography of this vaſt part of Aſia commences at a recent period; nor was it diſcloſed to the attention of civilized Europe till the middle of the ſixteenth century. It is indeed a ſingular circumſtance in human affairs, that America may be ſaid to have been diſcovered before Aſia, though it be natural to ſuppoſe that the latter would have engaged a more deep and immediate intereſt, becauſe the barbarous ſwarms in the extremity of Aſia had repeatedly aſtoniſhed and almoſt ſubjugated Europe. It has already been mentioned that in 1242 the Monguls under Sheibani eſtabliſhed a principality in the weſtern part of Siberia, around Tobolſk, and the river Tura, whence this principality was ſometimes ſtyled that of Turan.‡ The hiſtory of this diſtant principality is obſcure, and loſt in the ſuperior ſplendour of the other Mongul dynaſties. Progreſſive Geography.

In the reign of Ivan Vaſilivitch, the firſt of both theſe names, and by his conqueſt over the Tatars the founder of Ruſſian greatneſs, ſome in-

* See the Hiſt. des Decouvertes Ruſſes, &c. Berne 1779. 1787. 6 vols 8vo., being an abſtract of the travels of Pallas, Gmelin, Ghiorghi, &c.

' Tooke's Ruſſia, ii. 60.

† This is doubtful, Coxe, 182. Muller thinks the denomination was uſed by the Permians, a Finniſh nation on the confines of Siberia.

‡ This muſt not be confounded with the Touran (or Tatary) of the Perſians.

Progressive Geography.

curſions were made as far as the river Ob, and ſome Mongul chiefs were brought priſoners to Moſcow.[2] But more than half a century elapſed before the real conqueſt of Siberia commenced in the reign of Ivan Vaſilivitch II, who aſcended the Ruſſian throne in 1534. Trogonaff, a Ruſſian merchant of Archangel, having opened a traffic for Siberian furs, the tzar was induced to attempt the conqueſt of the country which ſupplied them; and in 1558 had added to his titles that of lord of Sibir or Siberia. Yermac, a Coſſac chief, being forced by the Ruſſian conqueſts in the ſouth to take refuge near the river Kama with 6000 of his followers, he afterwards directed his arms againſt Kutchum the Mongul khan of Sibir, whom he defeated and expelled; but perceiving that his power was precarious, in 1582 he claimed and obtained the protection of Ruſſia. Yermac ſoon after periſhed, and the Ruſſians retreated: but towards the beginning of the ſeventeenth century they had firm eſtabliſhments, and one Cyprian was appointed firſt archbiſhop of Sibir in 1621, reſiding at Tobolſk, where he drew up a narrative of the conqueſt. Towards the middle of the ſeventeenth century the Ruſſians had extended as far eaſt as the river Amur; but Kamchatka was not finally reduced till the year 1711. Beering and other navigators afterwards proceeded to diſcover the other extreme parts of Aſia. In his firſt voyage of 1728 Beering coaſted the eaſtern ſhore of Siberia as high as latitude 67° 18′, but his important diſcoveries were made during his voyage of 1741. The Aleutian iſles were viſited in 1745; and in the reign of the late empreſs other important diſcoveries followed, which were completed by thoſe of Cook.

In the ſouth the Mongul kingdom of Cazan having been ſubdued in 1552, and that of Aſtracan in 1554, and the Ruſſian monarchy extended to the Caſpian ſea, a conſiderable acceſſion was added to the progreſſive geography by the chart of that ſea drawn by command of Peter the great. It hence appeared that all geographers, ancient and modern, had miſtaken the very form of the Caſpian, which extends greatly from north to ſouth inſtead of ſpreading from eaſt to weſt as formerly delineated. In the reign of the late empreſs many important additions were made to the progreſſive geography by Pallas and other

[2] Coxe's Ruſſ. Diſ. p. 177.

ſcientific

ſcientific travellers, and a Ruſſian atlas was publiſhed, which may be regarded as nearly complete.

Progreſſive Geography.

The Ruſſian power in Aſia is of ſuch recent origin, that it affords few hiſtorical epochs except thoſe which have been already mentioned in the progreſſive geography. The hiſtory of Capſchak, or the kingdom of Aſtracan* before and after the conqueſt of the Monguls, is obſcure and unintereſting; nor can that of Cazan or Kazan, a more northern and barbarous ſtate, claim ſuperior attention. The city of Kazan was built in 1257, and became the capital of a ſmall independent Mongul principality, partly in Europe and partly in Aſia, A. D. 1441. The Ruſſians aſſert that they poſſeſſed Aſtracan before the invaſion of the Monguls in the thirteenth century; but while even this is doubtful, other parts of the hiſtory of Aſiatic Ruſſia cannot be ſuppoſed to be very clear.† The acquiſitions on the frontiers of Turkey and Perſia are recent and well known events.

Hiſtorical Epochs.

As the Ruſſian empire in Aſia borders for a great extent upon Chineſe Tatary, or rather the Monguls and Mandſhurs, who acknowledge the protection and ſupremacy of China, it may be proper here to commemorate a few events which have ariſen from this proximity. It has already been obſerved that about the middle of the ſeventeenth century the Ruſſians had advanced to the river Amur; here they ſubdued ſome Tunguſian tribes, and built ſome ſmall fortreſſes. The Chineſe monarch Camhi having formed a ſimilar deſign, the two great powers unavoidably claſhed; open hoſtilities commenced about 1680, and the Chineſe deſtroyed the Ruſſian forts. In Auguſt 1689 the treaty of Nerſhinſk, ſo called from the town in Daouria, was ſigned by the Ruſſian and Chineſe plenipotentiaries, and the limits ſpecified were a chain of mountains far to the north of the Amur, and the ſource of the ſmall river Gorbitza, thence to where that river joins the Amur, and laſtly along

* Capſchak once ſpread through the whole Mongul conqueſts in Muſcovy, including the Crimea, Aſtracan, Cazan and Kipzak on the N. of the Caſpian.

† The curious genealogical hiſtory of the Tatars by Abulgaſi-Chan gives little information concerning the northe n dynaſties. The manuſcript was brought from Siberia by Baron Strahlenberg, one of the Swediſh priſoners, and the French tranſlation, publiſhed 1726, is ſaid to be by one De Verannes, but perhaps by M. Bentink. The long and inſtructive notes by M. Bentink were collected apart, and form the deſcription of Tatary in the Recueil des Voyages du Nord, tome x, and the Hiſtoire Generale des Voyages, tome vii.

Historical Epochs.

the Argoon or Argounia, &c.[3] By this treaty the Ruſſians aſſert that they not only loſt a wide territory, but alſo the navigation of the river Amur, which would have been of great conſequence to their remote poſſeſſions in Aſia: yet the advantage was gained of a commercial intercourſe with the Chineſe. In 1727 the limits were continued weſtward from the ſource of the Argoon to the mountain Sabyntaban, near the conflux of two rivers with the Yeneſei; the boundary being thus aſcertained between the Ruſſians and the Monguls ſubject to China. The trade with China has been latterly conducted at Zuruchaitu, on the river Argoon, lat. 50. long. 117., and at Kiachta, about 90 miles S. of the ſea of Baikal, lat. 51. long. 106.* This boundary between two ſtates is the moſt extenſive on the globe, reaching from about the 65th to the 145th degree of longitude; eighty degrees (latitude fifty) computed at 39 geographical miles, will yield the reſult of 3120 miles. Its hiſtory therefore becomes ſingular and intereſting; but it is probable that the Ruſſians will inſiſt upon extending the boundary to the river Amur, which would form a natural limit, as there are no chains of mountains in a proper direction further to the ſouth between their empire and China.

The moſt curious antiquities ſeem to be the ſtone tombs which abound in ſome ſtepps, particularly near the river Yeneſei, repreſenting in rude ſculpture human faces, camels, horſemen with lances, and other objects. Here are found beſides human bones thoſe of horſes and oxen, with fragments of pottery and ornaments of dreſs.[4]

[3] Coxe, 200. Du Halde, iv.

* Mr. Coxe, p. 212, unaccountably ſays 35° N. latitude.

[4] Dec. Ruſs. vi. 210.

CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Religion. — Eccleſiaſtical Geography. — Government. — Laws. — Population. — Colonies. — Army. — Navy. — Revenues. — Political Importance and Relations.

THE Grecian ſyſtem of the Chriſtian faith, which is embraced by the Ruſſians, has made inconſiderable progreſs in their Aſiatic poſſeſſions. Many of the Tatar tribes in the S. W. are Mahometans; and others follow the ſuperſtition of Dalai Lama, of which an account ſhall be given in the deſcription of the Chineſe empire. But the more eaſtern Tatars are generally addicted to the Schaman religion, a ſyſtem chiefly founded on the ſelf-exiſtence of matter, a ſpiritual world, and the general reſtitution of all things.[1] The Schamanians even believe that the Burchans, or gods themſelves, aroſe from the general maſs of matter and ſpirit. Their epochs of deſtruction and reſtitution ſomewhat reſemble thoſe of the Hindoos. While common ſouls immediately receive their final decree, the virtuous become chubils, or wandering ſpirits, who are purified by tranſmigration, ſo as alſo to become Burchans, or gods. Between men and gods are the Tengri, or ſpirits of the air, who direct ſublunary affairs, and all the trifles ſo important to man, but beneath the moſt remote attention of the gods. The infernal regions chiefly contain thoſe who have offended the prieſthood. This ſyſtem is intimately connected with that of the Dalai Lama, and is ſo widely diffuſed that ſome have aſſerted Schamaniſm to be the moſt prevalent ſyſtem on the globe.* In Aſiatic Ruſſia it is profeſſed by moſt RELIGION.

[1] Tooke's Ruſſia, 1783. iv. 42.

* In his firſt volume Mr. Tooke aſſerts that this ſyſtem is the parent of Brahminiſm; and that the Schamanians are by Strabo called *Germanians*, by Clemens Alexandrinus *Sarmanians*, by Porphyry *Samanians*.

Religion. nations, as a great part of the Tatars, with the Fins, Samoieds, and Oſtiaks, the Mandſhurs, and Burats, and Tunguſes; and has even paſſed to the Coriaks, and Techuks, and people of the eaſtern iſles.[2] The population indeed of Aſiatic Ruſſia ſcarcely exceeds five millions, but many of the Chineſe are Schamanians, and the ſyſtem is intimately connected with that of the Brahmins, or rather of Boodh. On the eaſtern coaſt of the ſea of Baikal is the rock of the Schamans, an idol of a ſingular ſhape: and among the inferior ſpirits may be named the Garan, or aquatic fairies, the Ilguirki thoſe of the earth, Temir Kam thoſe of the mountains, and Vodaſch thoſe of the foreſts. But as the Schamanians admit one chief infernal deity and his ſubalterns, authors of evil, ſo they believe in one ſupreme uncreated beneficent being, who commits the management of the univerſe to inferior deities, who delegate portions of it to ſubaltern ſpirits. With more philoſophy they might ſuppoſe that evil cannot exiſt except in matter, and that an evil ſpirit is a contradiction in terms. It might afford a ſubject of curious enquiry to inveſtigate whether Schamaniſm be the parent of the Boodian, and Brahmin ſyſtem, as ſome ſuppoſe, preſerved in its original ſtate among theſe barbarous tribes: or only a corruption of thoſe diffuſed from India. Few literary topics can be more intereſting, as it would not only embrace the ſources of the Hindoo mythology, but alſo thoſe of claſſical paganiſm.

The archiepiſcopal ſee of Tobolſk is the metropolitan of Ruſſian Aſia in the north, and that of Aſtracan in the ſouth. There is another ſee that of Irkutſk and Nerſhinſk; and perhaps a few others of recent foundation.

Government. Siberia is divided into two great governments, that of Tobolſk in the weſt, and Irkutſk in the eaſt. The ſmaller provinces are Kolivan, Nerſhinſk, Yakutſk, and Ochotſk. In the S. W. is the government of Caucaſus, with one or two other diviſions, intermingling Europe and Aſia. At a diſtance from the capital the government becomes proportionably lax, and tribute is the chief mark of ſubjection.

Population. The population of Siberia cannot be computed at above three millions and a half;[3] ſo that Europe can in future have little to appre-

[2] Tooke's Ruſſia 1783. iii.

[3] Tooke's View, ii. 132.

hend

hend from the Tataric ſwarms. Small Ruſſian colonies have been eſtabliſhed in ſeveral of the diſtant provinces and iſles. The political importance and relations of this part of the Ruſſian empire chiefly relate to China and Japan. The late empreſs had, it is ſaid, projected the conqueſt of Japan, which might perhaps have imparted a ſpirit of induſtry to her continental poſſeſſions in that quarter; and it was computed that 10,000 Ruſſians could have conquered China. But the ſubjection of many parts of what was called Independent Tatary have given to China a military frontier, and the proximity to Pekin the capital, being ſo much greater, the Chineſe efforts would be ſpeedy and probably deciſive; while the march of Ruſſian reinforcements, through ſuch wide and barren regions, would be difficult and hazardous. In fact, on ſettling the frontier, the Ruſſians were overawed by ſuperior numbers, though it is probable that at no diſtant period the river Amur, alſo called the Sagalien Oula, may be eſtabliſhed as the boundary. The conqueſt of Japan, though more difficult than may have been conceived, affords many commercial temptations, but that of China would ſeem too vaſt even for the moſt graſping ambition. It is alſo aſſerted that the late empreſs, in caſe of a war with England, meditated to ſend an army from her Aſiatic poſſeſſions to Hindoſtan, through the provinces on the eaſt of the Caſpian, by Samarcand, and Caſhmir to the Ganges. This indeed would be but a trifling effort compared with the marches of Zingis, Timur, and other oriental chiefs. But the mode of warfare is greatly changed. When Voltaire inſtigated Catharine to ſeize Conſtantinople, ſhe replied that an epic poet eaſily might; but that modern armies conſiſt of men who eat, and all her power could not produce magazines of proviſions. This difficulty would be found far more cogent in a march of greater length, except that the powers in the north of India were unanimous in the favour of the Ruſſians.

Colonies.

Political Importance and Relations.

CHAPTER III.

CIVIL GEOGRAPHY.

Manners and Cuſtoms.— Language.—Literature.— Education.—Cities and Towns. —Manufactures and Commerce.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

THE manners and cuſtoms of Aſiatic Ruſſia vary with the numerous tribes, by whom that extenſive region is peopled. The Tatars properly ſo called, are the moſt numerous, not only remaining in their ancient kingdom of Sibir, but conſtituting many other tribes in the weſt, as the Nogays, the Kirguſes or Kaizaks, the Baſhkirs, and other tribes as far as the ſources of the river Ob. Next in importance are the Monguls, of whom one tribe, the Kalmuks, are found to the weſt of the Caſpian; while the others, called Burats, Tonguts, &c. are chiefly around the ſea of Baikal. Yet further to the eaſt are the Mandſhurs, or Tunguſes. Such are the three radically diſtinct diviſions of men, whom former European ignorance claſſed under the general name of Tartars.

The manners of the Tatars, who are the ſame people with the Huns of antiquity, are minutely deſcribed by thoſe authors who have delineated the fall of the Roman empire, prior to which period they ſeem to have been abſolutely unknown to the ancients, though many modern authors have erroneouſly confounded them with the Scythians of Herodotus, and other Gothic tribes, who were afterwards vanquiſhed, or expelled by the Tatars. Nor are the Seres a mild induſtrious race to be regarded as Tatars, but as, perhaps, northern Hindoos.* It would be ſuperfluous to enter into a detail of the manners and cuſtoms

* The Bucharian language has not been inveſtigated.

of

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. Monguls.

of the various nations in Aſiatic Ruſſia, for which the reader may be referred to the works of Pallas, and other recent travellers. In ſo ample a theme the difficulty is to ſelect; and the manners of the Monguls may be choſen as a ſpecimen. Thoſe of the Ruſſian empire are wholly Nomadic, their herds conſiſting of horſes, camels, oxen, ſheep, and goats. The women tan leather, dig the culinary roots, prepare the winter proviſions, dried or ſalted, and diſtil the koumiſs, or ſpirit of mare's milk. The men hunt the numerous beaſts, and game, that roam through the vaſt wilds. Their tents are formed of a kind of felt, and in ſome parts they erect little temples, and the prieſts have alſo wooden hovels around the temples. The Kalmuks are divided into three ranks; the nobility, whom they call white bones; the common people, who are bondmen, and termed black bones; and the clergy, deſcending from both, who are free.[1] In like manner the noble ladies are called white fleſh; and the common women black fleſh: but pedigrees are only reckoned by the bones. The power of the *Taidſha*, or chief prince, conſiſts ſolely in the number and opulence of his ſubjects, territory being of no eſtimation in ſo wide a region. Theſe ſubjects form an *Oluſs*, divided into *Imaks*, from 150 to 300 families; each Imak being commanded by a *Saiſſan*, or noble. If there be a great Khan, or emperor, the princes are only guided by him in affairs of general importance. The tribute is about a tenth part of the cattle, and other property; but on the firſt ſummons every man muſt appear on horſeback before the prince, who diſmiſſes thoſe who are unfit for the fatigues of war. The weapons are bows, lances, and ſabres, and ſometimes fire arms; and the rich warriors are clothed in mail of interwoven rings, like that uſed in Europe till the fifteenth century. But they cannot oppoſe regular armies, and are apt even to diſorder that of their allies.

The Monguls are rather ſhort in ſtature, with flat viſage, ſmall oblique eyes,* thick lips, and a ſhort chin, with a ſcanty beard. The

[1] Tooke, iv. 14.

* The eye aſcending towards the temples, like the Chineſe, ſeems a peculiar feature of the Monguls and Mandſhurs. The Tatar eye is ſmall, but ſtrait, or horizontal.

Manners and Customs.

ears are very large and prominent, the hair black, and the complexion of a reddiſh, or yellowiſh brown; but that of the women is clear, and of a healthy white and red. They have ſurpriſing quickneſs of ſight and apprehenſion; and are docile, hoſpitable, beneficent, active, and voluptuous. Induſtry is a virtue entirely female: yet great, and accompanied with perpetual cheerfulneſs. Their religious books are in the dialect of Tangut, or Tibet, and there is a ſchoolmaſter in every Imak, who imparts more knowledge to the boys than would be expected. Marriages are celebrated at an early age; and the bride brings a dower in cattle, or ſheep. The tent has a fire place in the middle; and in the deſarts dried cow dung is uſed for fuel. The tents of the nobles are hung with ſilk, and the floor covered with carpets of Perſia. The houſehold utenſils are numerous; and in the ſuperior tents are veſſels of pewter, ſilver, and porcelain. The dreſs conſiſts of a flat yellow bonnet, while the head is ſhaven except one lock. The trowſers are wide, the veſt of light ſtuff with narrow ſleeves, and a girdle which ſupports the ſabre, knife, and implements for ſmoking tobacco. The outer garment is of cloth, with wide ſleeves, and linen is wound about the feet, over which are drawn buſkins of leather, generally black or yellow. Shirts are unknown: and the dreſs of the women is the ſame, but inſtead of the outer garment they wear a gown without ſleeves. The hair of the females is long, and plaited in treſſes. Animal food is abundant, and ſometimes mixed with vegetable; while the general drink is water; but they ſometimes indulge in ſour milk, prepared after the Tatarian manner, butter milk, and koumiſs, but mead and brandy are now greater favourites. When paſturage begins to fail, the whole tribes ſtrike their tents, generally from ten to fifteen times in the year, proceeding in the ſummer to the northern, and in the winter to the ſouthern wilds. The herds, men, women, and children, form a regular proceſſion; and are followed by the girls, ſinging with harmony and ſpirit. The amuſements of theſe jovial wanderers conſiſt in running races on horſeback, in which even the girls excel; archery, wreſtling, pantomime, dances, and the ſongs of the young women, generally accompanied by the lute, viol, and pipe, the themes of their ditties being gigantic tales of chivalry, and amorous

adventures and ſentiments, but the melody is harſh and diſmal. Cards are not unknown, but cheſs is the favourite game. The bodies of the princes, and chief prieſts are burnt with many ſolemnities; and the tombs are ſometimes walled, and ornamented with high poles and fantaſtic drapery. MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

Mr. Tooke has printed ſome curious pieces of Kalmuk poetry, from which a characteriſtic ſpecimen ſhall be ſelected, being an elegy on the ſeceſſion of a hord on the Volga, which, diſguſted by the Ruſſian domination, ſought the protection of China.[2]

" The water of the vaſt ocean,
When it has raged with all its fury, becalms itſelf again;
This is the courſe of the world; and likewiſe ſtill to forget.
Ye white herds, with the mark of Schæbiner!
Thou prince Schereng, in the van as conductor,
Riding on thy noble reddiſh-bay horſe;
The prince Zebek following with his numerous troop,
Ah! Ubaſchakhan, conduct as now the Torgots!
There over rocks, over ſtones, and rough places,
The herds drag themſelves along, and become lean,
By flying over the land all covered with ſnow and froſt.
Ah! how the droves trot over the ſnow!
Now you are got thither and come to your reſting place.
Why was there any quarrel between thee and the white Khan?*
Ye otherwiſe peaceful Torgots between the Yaik and the Volga,
How far ye now retreat!
Ah! the beautiful Volga (Idſhel) is abandoned by the Torgot.
Ah! the lovely ſtream of Mazak is now likewiſe become an orphan.
Ah! thy many excellent young princes,
Ye are now all marched far away over the Yaik.
Ah! thou well-arranged troop of Torgots,
Art now perhaps arrived at the Irtiſch (Ertſchis).
Ah! helpleſs lamentable time!
Thou excellent hoſt of warriors marching towards Altai,
Ye have no princely women among you!
Fare ye well, ye who bring up the rear of the hord,
Princes Akſakal and Kirep!"

Such, with ſome ſlight ſhades of difference, are alſo the manners of the Tatars, and Mandſhurs; and Rouſſeau might, with far more plauſibility, have enquired concerning the perfection, and happineſs of

[2] Ruſſia 1783, 4 vols. 8vo. vol. iv. p. 66.

* Zagan Khaian, the name by which the Ruſſian monarch is known among almoſt all the eaſtern nations.

man

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

man among thoſe ſpirited and gay tribes of barbarians, than among the ſavages of Africa, or America.

Concerning the manners of the Samoieds little is known, as no inquiſitive traveller has viſited their bleak and barren heaths, and marſhes. Mr. Pennant has ſtyled them the Hottentots of the north, and deſcribes them as reſembling the Laplanders, but far more ugly and brutal.[4] They uſe the rein deer to draw their ſledges, but ſeem ſtrangers to its milk, and feed ſoully on quadrupeds, and fiſh.

A late ingenious traveller affords more preciſe information concerning the manners of the Kamchadals, and the Techuks, the moſt remote people of Aſiatic Ruſſia.[5] He travelled in the winter, when the ſnowy hurricanes were often ſo thick as to obſtruct the view as much as a heavy fog. The iſbas, or balagans, huts of the Kamchadals, are in the ſouth raiſed on poſts, about 12 or 13 feet high, for the purpoſe of drying their fiſh, almoſt their only food. A cotton ſhirt is worn next their ſkin, with trowſers, and a looſe frock of deer ſkin; the boots are of tanned leather, and the cap of fur. The men are chiefly occupied in catching fiſh, and in the ſummer the women proceed to the woods to gather fruits and vegetables, when they abandon themſelves to a kind of bacchanalian frenzy. The Kamchadals are of ſmall ſtature, with little hollow eyes, prominent cheek bones, flat noſe, black hair, ſcarcely any beard, and a tawny complexion. They conſiderably reſemble the Japaneſe; and their character is mild and hoſpitable. Inſtead of the rein deer, the dogs, which reſemble the ſhepherd curs of France, draw a light ſledge, upon which the traveller ſits in a ſide poſition. In the north of Kamchatka the hovels are partly excavated under ground, like thoſe which Dr. Brown obſerved near Belgrade, for the ſake of warmth, but the confined air, and ſtench are almoſt inſupportable.

Kamchadals.

Techuks.

The Techuks, who in all ſcarcely exceed a thouſand families, are generally found in ſmall camps, pitched by the ſide of the rivers. The rude tents are ſquare, conſiſting of four poles ſupporting ſkins of

[4] Arc. Zool. p. cliv.

[5] Travels in Kamchatka by Leſſeps, 1790. 2 vols. 8vo. Leſſeps attended La Perouſe, and returned with diſpatches through Aſiatic Ruſſia.

rein

rein deer, which alſo form the covering; before every tent are ſpears, and arrows, fixed in the ſnow againſt any ſudden attacks of the Koriaks, who, though of the ſame race, are a more malicious and enterpriſing people. In the midſt is a ſtove, and the bed conſiſts of ſmall branches of trees ſpread on the ſnow, and covered with deer ſkins. Their habitations and food are dirty and diſguſting; and the dreſs of the women conſiſts only of a ſingle deer ſkin faſtened at the neck, ſo that on looſing one knot the lady remains naked. The features are coarſe, but they have not the flat noſes, nor little hollow eyes of the Kamchadals; and Leſſeps pronounces their countenance to have nothing of the Aſiatic form, in which aſſertion he had been preceded by Pallas and Tooke. Even the Koriaks are ſuppoſed not to exceed 2000 families.[6] Manners and Customs.

Further to the weſt the Yakuts, around the town called Yakutſk, and a tribe of the ſame people, called Yukagirs, near the Arctic ocean, are degenerate Tatars who fled into theſe remote regions from the power of the Monguls, and preſerve their language and manners, as far as a more ſevere climate will permit. The Oſtiaks are chiefly Samoieds, though ſome of their tribes ſeem to be Fins, who, in the interchange of nomadic nations have paſſed from the European ſide of the Uralian chain.

Upon the whole the three diſtinct barbaric nations of Tatars, Monguls, and Tunguſes, or Mandſhurs, are by far the moſt intereſting in theſe middle regions of Aſia, as their anceſtors have overturned the greateſt empires, and repeatedly influenced the deſtiny of half the globe. The vague name of Tartary is nearly diſcarded from our maps, and might yield with far greater preciſion to names derived from the ſeats of the chief nations, as Tunguſia, or Mandſhuria, in the eaſt, Mongolia in the centre, and Tataria in the weſt. Of theſe the Monguls are the chief people, and the account already given of their manners will ſuffice with the preceding deſcriptions of ſome other tribes, to impart an idea of the ethical condition of Aſiatic Ruſſia.

The languages of all theſe original nations are radically different; and among the Tunguſes, Monguls, and Tatars, there are ſome ſlight Language.

[6] Leſſeps, ii. 84.

traces

Language. Literature.

traces of literature; and not a few manuſcripts in their ſeveral languages. The hiſtory of the Tatars, by Abulgaſi, is a favourable ſpecimen of Tataric compoſition. The late emperor of China ordered many of the beſt Chineſe works to be tranſlated into the Mandſhur language, which, having an alphabet, may be more eaſily acquired than the original. In the Mongul language there are alſo many books, written in the various countries to which their wide conqueſts extended. Superior, even amid their barbariſm, to the chief original nations of Africa, and America, the central races of Aſia deſerve an attention which has been laviſhed upon inferior objects.

Cities and Towns. Aſtracan.

In Aſiatic Ruſſia the principal city is Aſtracan, at the mouth of the Volga, which is ſuppoſed to contain 70,000 inhabitants. This city was founded by the Tatars, or rather Monguls of Kipſchak, yet ſome aſſert that the Ruſſians built Aſtracan before Batu, the Mongul conqueror, ſeized this region. In 1554 the Monguls were expelled; and in 1569 it was beſieged by the Turks, who, being ſuddenly attacked by the Ruſſians, were defeated with great ſlaughter. In 1672 it fell under the deſtructive power of the inſurgent Raſin, who in a few years met with a deſerved puniſhment. Aſtracan is built on ſeveral ſmall hills, that riſe amid the meadows of the Volga. The fortreſs on the weſt is triangular, but the walls of the city are neglected. The wooden houſes have expoſed it to frequent conflagrations, and attempts have been vainly made to enforce the uſe of brick. Vines are cultivated in the neighbourhood, and other fruits abound. There are twenty-five Ruſſian churches, and two convents. The Armenians, Lutherans, and Papiſts, have alſo their places of worſhip; and even the Hindoos have been permitted to erect a temple.[7] The chief trade of Aſtracan is in ſalt and fiſh, particularly ſturgeon, and kaviar, from the Volga; and it alſo attracts ſome portion of oriental commerce. The fiſhery on the Caſpian, which centers at Aſtracan, is eſteemed of the utmoſt conſequence to the empire.

Azof.

Azof, on the Aſiatic ſide of the Don, is of ſmall importance, except as a fortified poſt. The chief towns on the Aſiatic ſide of the

[7] Tooke's Ruſſia, iv. 341, &c.

Volga

Volga are Samara, and Stauropol. At the mouth of the river Ural, or Jaik, ſtands Gurief; but the chief place after Aſtracan is Orenburg, founded in the year 1740, to protect the acquiſitions in theſe parts, and promote their commerce. Nor have theſe views failed, for Orenburg is the ſeat of a conſiderable trade with the tribes on the eaſt of the Caſpian. Cities and Towns.

On paſſing the Uralian chain firſt occurs the city of Tobolſk, which only contains about 15,000 ſouls, but is eſteemed the capital of Siberia. Being moſtly built of wood, it was nearly conſumed by a violent fire about 1786; but it is believed is now rebuilt chiefly of ſtone. Tobolſk is more diſtinguiſhed as the reſidence of the governor and archbiſhop, than for the importance of its commerce. The upper town ſtands on a hill, on the eaſt ſide of the Irtiſh, and contains a ſtone fortreſs of ſome ſtrength. Indian goods are brought hither by Kalmuk and Bucharian merchants; and proviſions are cheap and plentiful. Tobolſk.

Kolyvan is a town of ſome conſequence on the river Ob. In the neighbourhood there are ſilver mines of conſiderable produce. To the north of Kolyvan is Tomſk, ſaid to contain about 8000 ſouls. Kolyvan.

Further to the eaſt the towns become of leſs conſequence, but a village attracts attention when ſituated in a deſert. On the river Yeniſei is a ſmall town of the ſame name; and another called Sayanſk, whence the adjacent part of the Altaian chain is called the mountains of Sayanſk.

On the river Angara, which iſſues from the ſea of Baikal, ſtands Irkutſk, ſuppoſed to contain 12,000 inhabitants. There are ſeveral churches and other edifices of ſtone, and the wooden houſes are large and convenient. Irkutſk is the chief mart of the commerce between Ruſſia and China, the ſee of an archbiſhop, and the ſeat of ſupreme juriſdiction over eaſtern Siberia.[7] The numerous officers, and magiſtrates have introduced the cuſtoms and faſhions of Peterſburg, and European equipages are not uncommon in this diſtant region. Irkutſk.

[7] Leſſeps, ii. 344.

Cities and Towns. Yakutſk.

On the wide and frozen Lena ſtands Yakutſk, with ſome ſtone churches, but the houſes are moſtly of wood, and inhabited chiefly by Ruſſians, as the Yakuts are fond of a wandering life. Leſſeps ſays that the Lena is here about two leagues in width, (though about 700 miles from its mouth,) but is greatly impeded with ice; and there are only a few ſmall barks, chiefly employed in ſupplying the town with proviſions. Ochotſk, on the ſea of the ſame name, may be rather regarded as a ſtation than a town.

Manufactures.

There are ſome manufactures, particularly in leather, at Aſtracan; and ſalt is prepared there, and in ſeveral other places in Aſiatic Ruſſia. Iſinglaſs is chiefly manufactured on the ſhores of the Caſpian, from the ſounds or air bladder of the ſturgeon, and the beluga. Kaviar is the ſalted roe of large fiſh. There is a conſiderable fabric of nitre, about 40 miles to the north of Aſtracan; but though aluminous earth abound near the Argoon, and Yeniſei, yet it is almoſt neglected. The Tatars and Baſhkirs make felts of a large ſize, ſome of which are exported. The Ruſſia leather is chiefly fabricated in the European provinces, being tanned with willow bark, and afterwards ſtained. Shagreen is prepared from the hides of horſes, or aſſes, but only a particular part of the back is fit for this purpoſe; and the grain is given with the hard ſeeds of the greater Orach, preſt into the leather while moiſt.[8] Pitch is made by the boors from the pines of Siberia. Near the Uralian mountains are ſeveral manufactures in iron and copper.

Commerce.

The chief commerce of this part of the Ruſſian empire conſiſts in ſables, and other valuable furs, which are eagerly bought by the Chineſe, who return tea, ſilk, and nankeen. That with the Kirguſes conſiſts in exchanging Ruſſian woollen cloths, iron, and houſehold articles, for horſes, cattle, ſheep, and beautiful ſheep ſkins. On the Black Sea there is ſome commerce with Turkey, the exports being furs, kaviar, iron, linen, &c. and the imports wine, fruit, coffee,

[8] Tooke's View, iii. 531.

ſilks,

ſilks, rice. In the trade on the Caſpian the exports are the ſame; but the return chiefly ſilk. The principal Ruſſian harbours are Aſtracan, Gurief, and Kiſliar, near the mouth of the Terek, but the beſt haven is Baku, belonging to the Perſians. The Tatars, on the eaſt of the Caſpian, bring the products of their country, and of Bucharia, as cotton yarn, furs, ſtuffs, hides, rhubarb; but the chief article is raw ſilk, from Shirvan, and Ghilan, on the weſt of the Caſpian. COMMERCE.

CHAPTER IV.

Natural Geography.

Climate and Seaſons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Foreſts.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Mineral Waters.—Natural Curioſities.

Climate and Seaſons.

IN Aſiatic Ruſſia the climate extends from the vine at the bottom of Caucaſus, to the ſolitary lichen on the rocks of the arctic ocean. Through the greater part of Siberia, the moſt ſouthern frontier being about 50°, while the northern aſcends to 78°, the general climate may more juſtly be regarded as frigid than temperate; being, in three-quarters of the country, on a level with that of Norway and Lapland, untempered by the gales of the Atlantic. To the ſouth of the ſea of Baikal the climate parallels with that of Berlin, and the north of Germany, ſo that the fineſt and moſt fertile regions in middle Aſia belong to the Chineſe. The chains of high mountains, which form the ſouthern boundary of theſe provinces, alſo contribute to increaſe the cold; and the ſea of Baikal is commonly entirely frozen from December till May. The fineſt climate in theſe eaſtern parts ſeems to be that of Daouria, or the province around Nerſhinſk; and the numerous towns on the Amur evince the great ſuperiority of what is called Chineſe Tatary, which is comparatively a fertile and temperate region. The change of the ſeaſons is very rapid: the long winter is almoſt inſtantaneouſly ſucceeded by a warm ſpring; and the quickneſs and luxuriance of the vegetation exceed deſcription.

Face of the Country.

In a general view of Aſiatic Ruſſia, the northern and eaſtern parts preſent vaſt marſhy plains, covered with almoſt perpetual ſnow, and pervaded by enormous rivers, which, under maſſes of ice, purſue their

dreary way to the Arctic ocean. Even the central parts of Siberia ſeem deſtitute of trees, vegetation being checked by the ſevere cold of ſo wide a continent. Towards the ſouth there are vaſt foreſts of pine, fir, larch, and other trees, among which is a kind of mulberry, which might probably thrive equally in many climates which are now deſtitute of that valuable tree. The ſublime ſcenes around the ſea of Baikal are agreeably contraſted with the marks of human induſtry, the cultivated field and the garden.* Even in the ſouth the rivers have already acquired the ſize of the Danube, and the Rhine, and they are navigable with ſafety for a great extent. The vaſt plains called ſtepps conſtitute a feature almoſt peculiarly Aſiatic; but the mountains do not correſpond in dignity, rather reſembling the Apennines, than the Alps, or even the Pyrenees. Face of the Country.

Many parts of Siberia are totally incapable of agriculture; but in the ſouthern and weſtern diſtricts the ſoil is of remarkable fertility. Towards the north of Kolyvan barley generally yields more than twelve fold, and oats commonly twenty fold.† Buck wheat, in this black light mould, is apt to run into ſtalk, but ſown in the pooreſt ſpots yields from twelve to fifteen fold. Excluſive of winter wheat, moſt of the uſual European grains proſper in ſouthern Siberia. It is remarkable that the culture of potatoes has not yet appeared, the Ruſſians having ſome ſtrange prejudice againſt that invaluable plant. In ſome parts flax grows wild, and hemp is alſo prepared from the nettle. Woad is found in Siberia, and ſaffron near the Caucaſus. The culture of the olive tree has been attempted near Aſtracan, and the heat of the ſummer was ſufficient, but the winter cold too ſevere. The beſt rhubarb abounds on the banks of the Ural, or Jaik, in the ſouthern diſtricts watered by the Yeniſei, and in the mountains of Daouria, and might be cultivated with advantage in theſe its native regions. Soil and Agriculture.

But in all parts of the Ruſſian empire agriculture has made little progreſs; nor indeed is it poſſible while the peaſantry are ſlaves, and ſold with the ſoil: and if even a free farmer acquire a little money, a noble neighbour will ſeize the fruits of his induſtry. In ſpite of theſe ob-

* See Bell's animated deſcription of this region.

† Tooke's View, iii. 238.

ſtacles

Soil and Agriculture.

ſtacles an intelligent traveller was ſurpriſed at the abundance of buck wheat, rye, barley, oats, and other grain which he obſerved to the ſouth of Tobolſk; where the cattle were alſo very numerous, and in the winter fed with hay.[2] Nay he aſſures us that in 1720, when he accompanied the Ruſſian ambaſſador to Pekin, he obſerved to the ſouth of the ſea of Baikal rich crops of *wheat*, rye, barley, oats, buck wheat, and peas, beſides culinary plants; but the inhabitants had not then begun to plant any fruit trees, though in his opinion they would proſper, as the ſnow never lay above two months on the ground.[3] The large garden ſtrawberry, called haut-bois, is found wild in the territory of Irkutſk: and on the Altaian mountains the red currant attains the ſize of a common cherry, ripening in large bunches of excellent flavour. Near the Volga and the Ural are excellent melons of various kinds. Bees are not known in Siberia; but among the Baſhkirs, to the weſt of the Uralian chain, form an article of great advantage to the farmer.

Rivers.

Some of the largeſt rivers of Aſia belong to the Ruſſian empire, nearly equalling in the length of their courſe any others on the globe. The Ob, including its wide eſtuary, may be ſaid to hold a comparative courſe of 1,900 Britiſh miles; while that of the Yeneſei is about 1750; and that of the Lena 1570. In the ſame mode of menſuration the Hoan Ho of the Chineſe, will, in its wandering progreſs, exceed the Ob; while the Kian Ku, pervading the center of China, may be traced, if the Porticho be included, for a length of about 2300 miles!

Ob.

The Ob may be traced from the lake of Altyn, lat. 51°, if its ſource be not even followed along the Shabekan river to lat 47°. The upper Irtiſh flows into the lake of Saiſan, whence it iſſues under the name of Lower Irtiſh, and after a circuit of great extent joins the Ob below Samarof. It riſes about the 45°, and ought perhaps to be regarded as the principal ſtream. But ſuch doubts are frequent concerning the Siberian rivers in particular, the names, and diſtinctions propoſed by ignorant barbarians, uſurping the place of exact geography. However this be, the Ob, piercing the Altaian chain, after having received many ſmall ſtreams, paſſes Kolyvan, and at ſome diſtance to the N. receives the

[2] Bell, i. 228. 8vo. edition. [3] Ib. 326.

Tomm,

Tomm, and other large rivers from the eaſt. Below Samarof, as already mentioned, it receives the great river Irtiſh, and runs into the ſea of Ob, a gulph of the Arctic ocean. The Ob is navigable almoſt to its ſource, that is to the lake of Altyn, and abounds with fiſh, but the ſturgeon of the Irtiſh are the moſt eſteemed. After it has been frozen for ſome time, the water becomes foul and fetid, owing to the ſlowneſs of the current, and the vaſt moraſſes; but the river is purified in the ſpring by the melting of the ſnow.[4] This is juſtly and univerſally eſteemed the largeſt river in the Ruſſian empire. The ſhores and channel are generally rocky till it receive the Ket; after which the courſe is through clay, marl, ſand, and moraſſes. Rivers.

Next is the Yeniſei, which is conſidered as deriving its ſource from the mountains to the S. W. of the Baikal, in the river called Siſkit; but the name Yeniſei is not imparted till many ſtreams have joined, when it holds its courſe almoſt due north to the Arctic ocean. Yet with far more propriety might the Yeniſei be derived from the ſea of Baikal, whence flows the Angara, afterwards abſurdly called Tunguſka,* being a ſtream of more length and importance than the Yeniſei, ſo that the name of Angara might be continued till it join the Arctic ſea. This river has ſome rapides, but is navigable for a great way. Yeniſei.

The Angara, afterwards called Tunguſka, is ſaid to be about a mile in breadth, when it iſſues from the Baikal, and is ſo clear that the pebbles of the bottom may be ſeen at the depth of two fathoms.[5] The channel is full of rocks for the ſpace of about a mile from its egreſs; and there is no paſſage for the ſmalleſt boats, except along the eaſtern bank. "The waters daſhing upon the ſtones make a noiſe like the roaring of the ſea, ſo that people near them can ſcarce hear one another ſpeak. I cannot expreſs the awfulneſs with which one is ſtruck at the ſight of ſuch aſtoniſhing ſcenes of nature, as appear round this place, and which I believe are not to be equalled in the known world. The pilots and Angara.

[4] Pennant, Arc. Zool. clxi.

* There are two other rivers of this name further to the north, the largeſt joining the Yeniſei in lat. 66°. But Mr. Pennant's Mangazea ſeems very doubtful, if it be not the village, or ſtation called Tourouk Hanſk.

[5] Bell, i. 307—315.

ſailors,

Rivers. sailors who navigate the lake speak of it with much reverence, calling it the Holy Sea, and the mountains about it the Holy Mountains; and are highly displeased with any person who speaks of it with disrespect, or calls it a lake."[6]

Selinga. The Selinga is a noble river, further to the south, which flows into the sea of Baikal,* after receiving the Orchon and other rivers, among which is the Tula, or Tola, the last stream that occurs till the wide desart be passed, which here divides the Russian empire from China proper. The territory adjacent to the Selinga and the Onon is the most interesting in Siberia, abounding with new, and truly Asiatic botany, and zoology.

Lena. The last of these large rivers is the Lena, which rises to the west of the sea of Baikal, running nearly parallel with the Angara, from which it is separated by a chain of hills. The Lena receives the Witim, and the Olekma from the Yablonoi mountains; and, till near Yakutsk, pursues a course from the S. W. to the N. E., a direction of considerable utility, as affording navigation to the remote regions. From Yakutsk the course is nearly due north; the channel being of great breadth and full of islands. The current of the Lena is generally gentle, and the bottom sandy. Travellers sail from the Lena into the Aldan, thence into the Maia, and the Yudoma, their route to Ochotsk, and Kamchatka, being thus expedited.

Such are the most important rivers of Asiatic Russia, the Volga having

Yaik. been already described in the European division. The Yaik is a considerable stream which flows into the Caspian: the name was recently changed for that of Ural, on account of a daring insurrection of the tribes bordering on the Yaik.† The Terek also joins the Caspian on the west, and its chief consequence is derived from the fertility of its shores. The Kuban, or ancient Hypanis, runs in an opposite direction into the Euxine, the lower shores being plain, and destitute of wood, while near the sources are large forests.

[6] Bell, i. 316.

* The Selinga might be regarded as the original Angara, or Yenisei, as the Ob, and Irtish also pass through lakes.

† This river alone rises on the E. of the Ural mountains, and afterwards pierces the granitic chain, and passes W. Dec. Russ. iv. 309.

Towards

Towards the other extremity of Aſiatic Ruſſia is the Anadir, which pervades the country of the Techuks. The long courſe of the Amur properly belongs to the Chineſe dominions. The Argoon may be properly conſidered as the original Amur, while the Onon alſo called the Schilka, which is regarded as another ſource of that great river, may be conſidered as entirely Ruſſian. The courſe of the Onon is about 500 miles; and it receives numerous ſtreams from mountains on the N. and S. Rivers.

In the north of Siberia the moſt conſiderable lake is that of Piazinſko. In the ſouth the ſea of Baikal is freſh, but the extent far exceeding that of any other lake, it has been deſcribed among the inland ſeas of Aſia. Between the river Ob and the Irtiſh is a large lake, about half the length of the Baikal, or 170 miles in length, divided by an iſland into two parts, called the lakes of Tchany and Soumi. In this quarter there are many ſmaller lakes, and others to the north of the Caſpian, ſome of which are ſalt, particularly that of Bogdo, near the ſmall mountain ſo called, and conſidered as proofs of the northern extenſion of that ſea. The Altan Nor, or golden lake, ſometimes corruptly called Elton, is a large ſaline lake on the E. of Zaritzin. The lake of Altyn, already mentioned in the account of the river Ob, is called by the Ruſſians Teletzko, and is conſiderably elevated on the north ſide of the Altaian mountains; but from the beſt maps is not above 40 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Lakes.

The Uralian mountains have been already deſcribed in the account of European Ruſſia. The grandeſt chain in Siberia is that called the mountains of Altai which, according to Pallas,* croſſing the head of the Irtiſh, preſents precipitous and ſnowy ſummits between that river and the ſources of the Ob. Thence it winds by the ſprings of the Yeniſei, and the ſouth of the ſea of Baikal, where it is called the mountains of Sayanſk. Here the Altaian chain bends in a more northerly direction to the neighbourhood of Ochotſk, under the ap- Mountains. Altai.

[7] Dec. R. vi. 363.

* He begins with the Great Bogdo, which, as afterwards appears, is a central ſummit, like St. Gothard in the Alps. The weſtern commencement ſeems to be about long. 70° E. from London. See Arrowſmith's map of Aſia, Iſlenieff, &c.

Mountains. pellation of the Yablonoi ridge, a name implying the mountains of Apples. Branches of inferior height paſs to the eaſtern extremity of Aſia under the latter name, or that of the Stanovoi mountains. The ſame chain in the north of Daouria is alſo called the Daourian mountains; and in this quarter a lower ridge paſſes due ſouth towards China.

The Altaian chain, ſtrictly ſo called, is by the Chineſe denominated the Golden Ridge, perhaps from the rich metals which it contains. The ſtepp, or deſart of Iſſim, ſeems to divide and diſtinguiſh it from the mountains of Ural, which bend by the weſt of Orenburg: and there are ſalt lakes and other ſigns that the Caſpian anciently extended in this direction.

Bogdo Alim. According to Dr. Pallas Bogdo Tola, or Bogdo Alim, the almighty mountain, rears its pointed ſummits with ſtriking ſublimity, on the limit between the Soongarian and Mongolian deſerts, while a chain extends to the lake of Altyn in the N. W., and another to the S. E. called Changay, and a ſnowy ridge, that of Maſſart, paſſes ſouth, and is ſuppoſed to join thoſe of Tibet;* and laſtly this parent mountain ſends forth a rocky arm "called Allakoola, or the checquered ridge, and by the Tartars Ala Tau, connected with the Kirguſian Alginſkoi Sirt." Between the laſt ridge, and the Maſſart, according to our author, riſe the river Sirr, or Sihon, and the Talas. From Alla koola the Ili runs north into the lake of Palkati, or Balkaſh, and the Emil and Tſhui flow in the ſame direction. From the mighty Bogdo itſelf riſes the upper Irtiſh, which flows into the lake of Saizan: hence this great mountain muſt be ſituated about long. 93°. lat. 44°. It is thus probable that the Altaian chain is connected with the ſouthern by other ridges beſides that of Maſſart, the deſarts between Siberia, and Hindoſtan, and eaſtern Bucharia being alternate hills and plains, and extremely rocky.[7]

* This Maſſart, or Muſart, may poſſibly be the Alak, (Alak ula, or Alak Tag,) which joins the Belur Tag; but Mr. Tooke's tranſlation from the German is far from clear, or applicable to modern maps. View of Ruſſia, i. 145—175. See alſo Pallas *Sur la formation des Montagnes*, Paris 1779, abridged in the ſixth volume of the *Decouvertes Ruſſes*.

[7] Pallas, ib.

The

The weſtern part of the Altaian chain is chiefly argillaceous, with granitic heights, containing ſchorl, but many parts are calcareous. Sinnaia-Sopka, or the blue mountain, the chief ſummit in the government of Kolyvan, does not exceed 3000 feet above the ſea, and conſiſts of coarſe granite, with argillaceous ſchiſtus, and limeſtone at the bottom. Here a granitic ridge runs north towards the river Tſariſh, abounding with ores of ſilver, copper, and zinc. Wacken, and ſiliceous ſchiſtus, with hornblende, and felſpar, are alſo frequent in this part. The Schlangenberg is the richeſt in minerals, and near the river Alay to the N. W. branches of hills continue full of minerals, and often compoſed of porphyry, and granite, one of them on the north of the river Ouba riſing to 5691 Engliſh feet above the bed of the ſtream. That ſpace of the Altaian chain which runs between the Ob and the Yeniſei has been little explored; but affords granite, porphyry, jaſper, primitive and ſecondary limeſtone, with ſerpentine, petroſilex, ſlate, mountain cryſtal, carnelian, and calcedony: one of the higheſt ſummits is the Sabin, near the ſource of the Abakan. In general they are bare, the chief foreſts being in the bottoms near the rivers, and conſiſting of pines, firs, larches, cedars, birch, aſpine, alder, and willow. That portion called the Sayanſk mountains alſo conſiſts chiefly of granite, and porphyry, with ſeveral mines of talc, or Muſcovy glaſs. Branches extend on both ſides of the ſea of Baikal, likewiſe preſenting mines of talc, and promontories of milk white quartz, other ſummits are of fine grained granite, and ſometimes there are maſſes of felſpar containing green ſchorl. Near Irkutſk coal has been found; and there are ſalt ſprings in many places. Other products of this rich diſtrict ſhall be mentioned in the mineralogy. Mountains.

The mountains of Nerſhinſk, or Ruſſian Daouria, ſend branches towards the Selinga, and the Amur. The chief heights are towards the ſources of the Onon, and Ingoda, where there are precipitous ſummits of granite. A ridge paſſing S. W. and N. E. to the ſouth of Nerſhinſk between the rivers Onon and Argoon, (the laſt of which is the real Amur,) is the moſt fertile in minerals of all Aſiatic Ruſſia. Among the products may be named granite, porphyry, jaſper, calcedony, carnelian, onyx, petroſilex, large ſmoaky topazes, beryl, or aqua marine, Nerſhinſk.

Mountains. the real topaz, the jacint, and beautiful ſchorls; with ſerpentine, aſbeſtos, ſmectite, or indurated ſteatite, and alabaſter, beſides ſlate, and limeſtone. In this opulent diſtrict are alſo ſalt lakes, and warm ſprings with vitriolic pyrites, ores of alum, native ſulphur, and coals. The metals are zinc, iron, copper; and many mines of lead ore, containing ſilver, and gold. The zoology and botany are alike curious and intereſting.*

Stanovoi. The chain of Stanovoi, otherwiſe called the mountains of Ochotſk, is only a continuation of the mountains of Daouria. This part has been little explored; but produces granite, porphyry, calcedony, and carnelian, with rock cryſtal, ſulphureous pyrites, and ores of alum, and it is ſaid that coal is found in this diſtrict. A great ſingularity of this ridge is, that ſome entire branches conſiſt of beautiful red and green jaſper. That branch which pervades Kamchatka is little known, being covered with perpetual ice and ſnow, but it abounds with volcanoes; and the iſles which ſtretch towards Japan are frequently volcanic, nor is the latter kingdom yet free from the ravages of burning mountains.

This grand chain contains almoſt the whole mountains of Siberia, the remainder of the land on the W. of the Yeneſei being level; and to the E. of that river are only ſeveral long ranges extending from the S. to the N.

But in the S. W. part of Aſiatic Ruſſia ſome ranges deſerve attention, as the lower part of the Uralian chain, which bends, as before obſerved, to the W. above Orenburg. The ſuppoſed branch connecting the Uralian and Altaian chains is doubtful, being far to the S. of the Ruſſian boundary, and in a region little explored.†

The claſſical range of Caucaſus forms a partial limit between the Ruſſian empire, and thoſe of Turkey and Perſia. Between the Euxine and the Caſpian the Caucaſian chain extends for about 400 B. miles; and where the chief heights are diſtinctly marked about 5 miles in breadth, but in many places 20 or 30. The ſummits are covered

* The mountain Adunſhollo, celebrated for minerals, is in the ſouthern extremity of Ruſſian Daouria. Dec. Ruſſ. v. 502. That volume, and the ſixth, or laſt, may be conſulted for an account of this country.

† Pallas mentions it in general terms as low and broken; and conſiders the Uralian ridge as bending S. W. towards the Yaik, and the Caſpian. See Independent Tatary.

with eternal ice and ſnow; and conſiſt as uſual of granite, ſucceeded by ſlate and limeſtone. In ancient times they produced gold; and there are ſtill veſtiges of ſilver, lead, and copper; and it is ſuppoſed of lapis lazuli. The vales abound with excellent foreſt trees.* Mountains.

Aſiatic Ruſſia is ſo abundant in foreſts that particular names have not been aſſigned to ſo vaſt an extent. On the weſt of the government of Irkutſk an enormous, dark, and marſhy foreſt of reſinous trees extends to the river Kan.[8] The northern and eaſtern parts of Siberia are bare of wood; the Norway fir not being found farther north than lat. 60°, while the ſilver fir does not exceed lat. 58°. In Europe, on the contrary, the Norway fir forms extenſive foreſts in Lapmark, within the arctic circle.[9] Foreſts.

After the foreſts may be conſidered the extenſive level plains, an appearance of nature almoſt peculiar to Aſia, and ſome parts of European Ruſſia; but ſomewhat ſimilar to the ſandy deſarts of Africa. The ſtepps are not ſo barren of vegetation, being moſtly only ſandy; with ſcattered patches of thin graſs, and at wide intervals a ſtunted thicket. Between the mouths of the Don and Volga is a ſtepp which reſembles the bed of a ſea; with ſpots of ſalt, and ſaline lakes, being entirely deſtitute of freſh water and wood.[10] Stepps.

On the eaſtern ſide of the Volga begins an extenſive ſtepp, formerly called that of the Kalmuks, from tribes who uſed to roam there, till they withdrew from the Ruſſian dominions in 1771. To the S. it is bounded by the Caſpian ſea, and the lake Aral; while to the N. it may be regarded as connected with the ſtepp of Iſſim; and on the E. may be conſidered as extending to the river Saraſu; the greater part not belonging to the Ruſſian dominions, but being abandoned to the wander-

* See the laſt travels of Pallas, 1793—4, London 1801, 2 vols. 4to. In vol. i. p 335, there is a curious deſcription of the Caucaſian chain, which may be compared with that of Gmelin, Dec. Ruſſ. ii. iii. The Perſian name of the chief ſummit, *Elburz*, (ſee D'Anville's map of Aſia) the Doctor latinizes *Elburus*, and then puzzles himſelf concerning the etymon. This ſtupendous alp Pallas ſuppoſes equal in height to Mont Blanc: it ſeems central, but nearer the Euxine than the Caſpian. The Beſh Tau is calcareous, and collects vapours like other calcareous mountains. Ib. iii. 70. The other chief heights are Ketſhergan, Barmamut, Urdi, Kandſhal.

Shereſedin ſtyles the whole chain of Caucaſus *Alburz*.

[8] Dec. Ruſſ. vi. 183. [9] Pennant, A. Z. p. clxxx. [10] Tooke's View, i. 178

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Steppe. ing Kirguſes. This vaſt deſart extends about 700 B. miles from E. to W.; and, including Iſſim, nearly as far from N. to S, but on the N. of the Caſpian the breadth does not exceed 220. A ridge of ſandy hills ſtretches from near the termination of the Uralian chain towards the Caſpian; the reſt is a prodigious ſandy level, with ſea ſhells, and ſalt pools.* There are however ſmall diſtricts capable of improvement, like the Oaſes, or iſles in the midſt of the African deſerts. The north eaſtern part of this ſtepp is connected with that of the Irtiſh; nay it is conſidered as extending even to the Ob, under the name of the Barabin ſtepp.

This ſtepp of Barabin, N. W. of Omſk, is about 400 miles in length, and 300 in breadth, containing a few ſalt lakes, but in general of a good black ſoil, interſperſed with foreſts of birch † That of Iſſim aſpires but rarely to the ſame quality: and in both are found many tombs, incloſing the remains of paſtoral chiefs, Tatar or Mongul.

The vaſt ſpace between the Ob, and the Yeniſei, from the north of Tomſk to the arctic ocean, is regarded as one ſtepp, being a prodigious level with nō appearance of a mountain, and ſcarcely of a hill. The ſame term is applied to the wider ſpace between the Yeniſei, and the Lena, between the arctic ocean on the north, and a river Tunguſka‡ lat. 65°; and to the parts beyond the Lena as far as the river Kolyma, or Covima.

Botany. When we conſider the vaſt extent of the Aſiatic provinces of the Ruſſian empire, the ſcantineſs of their population, and the few years that have as yet elapſed ſince the firſt attempt to inveſtigate their natural productions, we ſhall feel rather ſurprized at what has been

* See in the laſt travels of Pallas, i. 178, a curious account of a detached mountain in this ſtepp, towards the Volga, called Bogdo Ula. This hill near the ſaline lake of Bogdo, has no connection, ſave in name, with the great mountains of Bogdo, in a remote quarter; the word only ſignifying *moſt mighty*, and Ula ſeems in the Kalmuk to imply a mountain, as in Mandſhur a river. This ſingular ſolitary hill is viſible at the diſtance of 25 miles.

† The poverty of deſcriptive language is frequently to be regretted. A Ruſſian ſtepp ſometimes reſembles a deſart, at other times a ſavanna waving with luxuriant graſs.

‡ This vague name ſeems only to imply a river of the Tunguſes. It is to be wiſhed that the Academy of Sciences at Peterſburg would reviſe the maps of Aſiatic Ruſſia, and give us diſtinct, and pronounceable names. At preſent we may well wiſh for more knowledge, and fewer conſonants.

done,

done, than diſappointed becauſe no greater progreſs has been made in arranging, and deſcribing their indigenous vegetables. The labours of Steller and Gmelin, and laſtly of Pallas, under the munificent patronage of the Empreſs Catharine, have diſcloſed to the view of ſcience the wilds of Siberia, and the deſarts of Tatary, and though many extenſive tracts continue wholly unexplored, yet from the ample ſpecimen that has been ſurveyed, we may form a very probable conjecture concerning the botany of the remainder. Botany.

Ruſſia in Aſia, with regard to its flora, is divided by nature into two unequal portions: the ſmaller of theſe is bounded on the weſt by the Don, and Wolga, on the eaſt by the Uralian mountains, and on the ſouth by the Caſpian ſea, and the Turkiſh, and Perſian frontiers. The climate of this diſtrict is delicious, and the ſoil fertile, it ſlopes towards the ſouth, and is protected from the northern blaſts by lofty mountainous ridges; in its botany it greatly reſembles the province of Taurida, of which an account has already been given: the cedar, the cypreſs, the ſavine, red juniper, beech, and oak cloath the ſides of the mountains; the almond, the peach, and the fig abound in the warm receſſes of the rocks: the quince, the apricot, the willow-leaved pear, and the vine are of frequent occurrence in the thickets, and on the edges of the foreſts. The date-plum, *(dioſpyros lotos,)* the jujube, and Chriſt's thorn, *(rhamnus zizyphus*, and *paliurus,)* are alſo natives of theſe provinces, and evince the mildneſs of the climate: the bogs are adorned by thoſe exquiſitely beautiful plants the rhododendron ponticum, and azalea pontica: the olive, the wild olive, *(elæagrus orientalis,)* the ſtately wide ſpreading eaſtern plane tree, *(platanus orientalis,)* the laurel, the bay, and lauruſtinus grow in abundance on the ſhores of the ſea of Azof, and the Caſpian; and the romantic vales of the Caucaſus are perfumed and enlivened with the ſyringa, the jaſmine, the lilac, and the Caucaſian roſe. From ſo flattering a ſpecimen it is not to be doubted that future naturaliſts will gather an abundant harveſt of uſeful and beautiful vegetables in theſe diſtricts, which have hitherto been very inadequately noticed.

By far the larger part of the Ruſſian dominions in Aſia is the wide expanſe of Siberia, ſloping towards the north, and ſhut up on the

Botany. ſouth by the ſnowy ſummits of the Altaian, and other mountainous chains. As the winters are of great length and ſeverity throughout the whole of this tract, none but the hardieſt vegetables are found to inhabit it. The oak, and the hazle, which endure the rigours of a German winter without ſhrinking, cannot exiſt in a Siberian climate; dwarfiſh ſpecimens indeed of each may be traced at the foot of the Altaian mountains, quite acroſs Aſia, as far as the banks of the river Amur, in Daouria, where, being ſcreened from the northern blaſts, they reſume their natural ſize, but all that attempt to penetrate northward become more diminutive as they advance, and ſoon entirely diſappear. Even the common heath, and bog myrtle, *(myrica gale,)* which cover the lower parts of Lapland, venture but a very little way eaſtward of the Uralian mountains. We are not however hence to conclude that the mighty rivers of Siberia pour their everlaſting ſtreams through a barren waſte of perpetual ſnow; on the contrary they are bordered with inexhauſtible foreſts of birch, of alder, of lime, of Tatarian maple, of black and white poplar, and aſpen, beſides millions of noble trees of the pine ſpecies, ſuch as the fir, the Scotch pine, the larch, the ſtone pine, and yew-leaved fir. Nor during their ſhort ſummer are they deſtitute of many beautiful plants, that lie concealed under the ſnow during the greater part of the year; ſeveral of the orchis tribe are natives of the Siberian foreſts, ſuch as cypripedium bulboſum, ſatyrium epipogium, ophrys monorchis, and the ſplendid orchis cucullata: the lily of the valley, the black and white hellebore, the Siberian iris, and anemone, blending with the white feathery flower-ſpike of the ſpiræa trilobata, thalictroides, altaica, or Kamtſchatica, form an aſſemblage of fragrance and beauty, unequalled by many more ſouthern countries.

The Siberian plum, and crab *(prunus ſibiricus*, and *pyrus baccata,)* the mountain aſh, the daphne Altaica, and Tatarian honeyſuckle, *(lonicera tatarica,)* robinia fruteſcens, and altagana, Tatarian mulberry, *(morus tataricus,)* and the daourian roſe form thickets of exquiſite beauty, under ſhelter of which ariſe the white flowered peony, the gentiana glauca, algida, altaica, and ſeveral congenerous ſpecies, allium ſibiricum, amaryllis Tatarica, aſphodelus Tataricus, lilium Kamtſchatenſe,

chatenſe, the yellow ſaranne lily, whoſe roots are a favourite food with the Tatarian tribes, and a multitude of others, a bare liſt of whoſe names would be neither amuſing nor inſtructive. The moſſes, and heaths are inhabited by ſeveral elegant ſhrubby plants, among which may be diſtinguiſhed rhododendron chryſanthemum, Tataricum, and Kamtſchaticum; andromeda taxifolia, and bryanthus; together with rubus chamemorus, and others that are found in ſimilar ſituations in the north of Europe. Only two plants more need be mentioned, the heracleum panaces, and ſibiricum, from the dried ſtalks of which the natives procure a ſaccharine efflorescence, whence, by fermentation, and diſtillation, a coarſe ardent ſpirit is made that enables them to enjoy the ſupreme beatitude of all the northern nations, drunkenneſs. Botany.

Siberia has hitherto been found to poſſeſs ſcarcely any peculiar genera of plants: and even all the ſpecies, of any conſiderable importance, are thoſe trees which are common to it and the north of Europe.

In the greater part of Aſiatic Ruſſia the rein deer, which extends to the furtheſt eaſt, performs the office of the horſe, the cow, and the ſheep; if we except Kamchatka, where dogs, like the Pomeranian, are uſed for carriage. But the ſouth may perhaps be conſidered as the native country of that noble animal the horſe, being there found wild, as well as a ſpecies of the aſs.[11] The terrible urus or biſon is yet found in the Caucaſian mountains; and the argali, or wild ſheep, is hunted in Siberia. That ſingular ſmall ſpecies of cattle called the muſk bull and cow, with hair trailing on the ground, ſeems peculiar to the north of America.[12] The ibex or rock goat is frequent on the Caucaſian precipices; and large ſtags occur in the mountains near the Baikal, with the muſk animal, and wild boar. Wolves and foxes, and bears, of various names and deſcriptions, are alſo found. That kind of weazel called the ſable affords a valuable traffic by its furs. Some kinds of hares appear, little known in other regions; and the caſtor or beaver is an inmate of the Yeniſei. The walrus, or large kind of ſeal, once termed the ſea horſe, is no ſtranger to the arctic ſhores; and the common ſeal extends even Zoology.

[11] Pennant A. Z. i. 2. See alſo Dec. Ruſs. vi. 309.

[12] Ib. 8. It ſeems a ſmall ſpecies of the yak of Tibet and Mongolia.

Zoology. to Kamchatka, while the manati, perhaps the mermaid of fable, inhabits the ſtraits of Beering, and the iſles between the continents. To enumerate the other animals of this extenſive part of Aſia would be ſuperfluous, as Siberia is ſo rich in zoology and botany, that, as Mr. Pennant obſerves, even the diſcovery of America has ſcarcely imparted a greater number of objects to the naturaliſt.

It will be more appoſite to the preſent purpoſe to give a brief idea of the moſt intereſting animals. The horſes of the Monguls are of ſingular beauty, ſome being ribbed like the tyger, and others ſpotted like the leopard. The noſtrils of the foals are commonly ſlitted, that they may inhale more air in the courſe. The three great Nomadic nations of the centre of Aſia, the Tatars, Monguls, and Mandſhurs, have no averſion to horſe fleſh, which is in their opinion ſuperior to beef; but it is never eaten raw, as fabled, though they ſometimes dry it in the ſun and air, when it will keep for a long time, and is eaten without further preparation. The *adon*, or ſtud of a noble Mongul, may contain between three and four thouſand horſes and mares. The cattle are of a middling ſize, and paſs the winter in the ſtepps or deſarts. As theſe nations uſe the milk of mares, ſo they employ the cow for draught, a ſtring being paſſed through a hole made in their noſtril. Mr. Bell met a beautiful Tatar girl aſtride on a cow, attended by two male ſervants. The ſheep are of the broad tailed kind; but the delicately waved lambſkins are procured by the cruel practice of opening the womb of the mother.

The beſt ſables are found near Yakutſk and Nerſhinſk; but thoſe of Kamchatka are the moſt numerous, and ſeveral ſtratagems are employed to catch or kill the animal, without any injury to the ſkin, which is ſometimes worth ten pounds on the ſpot. The black foxes are alſo highly eſteemed, one ſkin being ſometimes ſufficient to pay the tribute of a village.[13] The rock or ice fox, generally of a white colour, ſometimes bluiſh, is found in great numbers in the eaſtern Archipelago. This animal rivals the ape in ſly tricks and miſchief. Other animals purſued for their ſkins are the marmot, the marten, the ſquirrel, the ermine, and others of inferior repute. The bear is deſtroyed by many

[13] Tooke's View, iii. 43.

ingenious

ingenious methods. The Koriaks contrive a loop and bait hanging from a tree, by which he is ſuſpended. In the ſouthern mountains his uſual path is watched, a rope is laid in it with a heavy block at one end, and a nooſe at the other. When thus entangled by the neck he is either exhauſted by dragging ſo great a weight, or attacking the block with fury he throws it down ſome precipice, when it ſeldom fails to drag him to deſtruction. On the European ſide of the Uralian chain, where the peaſants form bee hives in tall trees, the bear is deſtroyed in his attempt to ſeize the honey, by a trap of boards ſuſpended from a ſtrong branch, and ſlightly attached to the entrance of the hive: the animal finding this platform convenient for his purpoſe undoes the ſlight faſtening to get at his luſcious repaſt, but is inſtantly conveyed to a great diſtance, and remains in the perpendicular of the branch, till he be diſcovered and ſhot by the contrivers. Nor muſt the beaver and the civet cat be omitted, the latter animal being found in the Altaian chain, and that ſupreme prominence of Aſia which extends to Tibet, though perhaps ſometimes confounded by travellers with the muſk deer of Tibet; and even the civet cat rather reſembles the fox. The elk alſo abounds in Siberia; the chamois is found on the Caucaſian mountains; and ſeveral kinds of antelopes in Daouria. The wild boar grows to ſuch a ſize that the tuſks are ſometimes ſaid to weigh ſix hundred pounds, in which caſe it is no wonder that we hear of the tuſks of elephants found in Siberia.[14] The wild horſe, aſs, and ſheep, are minutely deſcribed by Pallas; but the various ſhades of difference between them and the domeſtic animals are too minute for this rapid ſurvey. Zoology.

The mineralogy of Siberia is equally fertile, and diſplays many ſingular and intereſting objects. Peter the great, who directed his attention to every object of utility, was the firſt who ordered theſe remote mines to be explored, which have ſince ſupplied great reſources of national wealth and induſtry. For the example of Spain, adduced by theoriſts againſt this important branch, without which neither agriculture nor any of the arts could proſper, is an exception and not a rule; and only ſhews that miſmanagement may ruin any advantage. As well Mineralogy.

[14] Tooke, iii. 79.

Mineralogy. might we declaim againſt agriculture, becauſe the cultivation of rice is unhealthy. No propoſitions can be more plain than that England has derived her vaſt manufactures and commerce from her mines of coal, without which material they muſt long ago have terminated; that the iron of Sweden is the great reſource of the ſtate; and that the ſilver mines of Saxony have been the grand cauſe of the flouriſhing agriculture and general proſperity of that country. It is equally clear and ſimple that if valuable mines were diſcovered in a barren country, they would not only employ many uſeful labourers, but the product might be exchanged to advantage for the neceſſaries or decorations of life, or expended in agricultural improvements. Hence the mines of Siberia have ſupplied great reſources to Ruſſia; while, merely by a miſerable form of adminiſtration, thoſe of Mexico and Peru have been ranked among the cauſes of the decline of Spain.

The chief gold mines of Siberia are thoſe of Catherinburg or Ekatheringburg, on the eaſt of the Uralian mountains, about lat. 57°, where an office for the management of the mines was inſtituted in 1719. The mines of various ſorts extend to a conſiderable diſtance on the N. and S. of Catherinburg; and the founderies, chiefly for copper and iron, are computed at 105. But the gold mines of Bereſof, in this vicinity, were of little conſequence till the reign of Elizabeth. The mines of Nerſhinſk, diſcovered in 1704, are principally of lead mixed with ſilver and gold; and thoſe of Kolyvan, chiefly in the Schlangenberg, or mountain of ſerpents, ſo called by the German miners, began to be worked for the crown in 1748.

The gold is ſometimes found native, but generally mingled with various ſubſtances, (the *aurum larvatum* of Gmelin,) particularly ſilver, which conſtitutes the electrum of the ancients. The gold mines of Bereſof are the chief in the empire; thoſe of Kolyvan and Nerſhinſk being denominated ſilver mines, their produce of gold being of much ſmaller conſequence.*

* For Bereſof, a few miles N. E. of Catherinburg, ſee the *Decouvertes Ruſſes*, iv. 162, &c., and the map in that volume. The gold mines are near the river Pyſhma, which falls into the Tobol. That entire volume deſcribes Ufa, the Baſhkirs, and the Uralian chain, inſtead of being a *Voyage en Perſe*, as the running title bears.

The

The ſilver is rarely native, but often mingled with gold, as already mentioned; and in the Daourian mountains with lead. That kind called horn ſilver is alſo found in the Schlangenberg; and what is called the glaſſy ore, and thoſe kinds called *fragile* and *nitens* by Gmelin, as alſo the red arſenical ore, and the cupriferous ſulphurated ſilver ore of Kirwan, moſtly found in the Schlangenberg, and other mountains, branching north from thoſe of Altai towards Kolyvan.

Beſides the copper mines in the Uralian mountains there are alſo ſome in thoſe of Altai. The moſt ſingular ore is the dendritic, ſomewhat reſembling fern, of a pale colour, and perhaps containing ſilver. Malachite, or ſtalactitic copper, is found in the greateſt perfection in a mine about 30 miles S. of Catherinburg. What is called the Armenian ſtone is a blue malachite.[1] The red lead of Siberia is found in the mines of Bereſof, on a micaceous ſand ſtone. This ſubſtance it is well known has diſcloſed a new metal called chrome.

But the iron mines of Ruſſia are of the moſt ſolid and laſting importance, particularly thoſe which ſupply the numerous founderies of the Uralian mountains.* Yet Ruſſia ſtill imports quickſilver, and zinc; and the ſemi-metals are rare.

Rock ſalt is chiefly found near the Ilek, not far from Orenburg. Coal is ſcarcely known; but ſulphur, alum, ſal ammoniac, vitriol, nitre, and natron, are found in abundance.

Nor muſt the gems of Siberia be omitted, of which there is a great variety, particularly in the mountain Adunſhollo near the river Argoon, in the province of Nerſhinſk or Daouria. The diamond has never appeared except in Hindoſtan and Braſil, where it is always detached; as is the ſtone chiefly found in Ceylon, and called according to its colour the ruby, ſapphire, and oriental topaz. Common topazes are found in Adunſhollo, in quadrangular priſms, as is alſo the jacint. The emerald

[1] Guthrie, Table of Gems. Bee xv p. 212. In the ſtepp near Orenburg is a ſingular mine of copper with petrified trees. Dec. R. iii. 147.

* Near mount Emor, or Nemir, not far from the river Yeniſei, in the ſouth of Siberia, Dr. Pallas diſcovered a large maſs of native iron. See Dec. Ruſs. vi. 328, which places it near Kraſnojarſk. In the ſame volume, p. 189, is a curious account of the rich iron mines near Rybna, S. E. of that place, covered with mineralized trunks of trees.

Mineralogy. is unknown; the kind of jad called mother of emerald is a Siberian product: and beryl or aqua marine is found in Adunſhollo, but in greater perfection in what are called the gem mines of Mourſintſky near Catherinburg, along with the chryſolite. Red garnets abound near the ſea of Baikal; and a yellowiſh white kind was diſcovered by Laxman. The opal is ſaid to have been found in the Altaian mountains; probably only the ſemi-opal, the noble opal ſeeming peculiar to Hungary.* The ruby coloured ſchorl was diſcovered in the Uralian mountains, by Mr. Herman, at Sarapoulſky, about ſeven miles from Mourſintſky. It is called by Mr. Kirwan the rubellite, being of a delicately fibrous texture, and often when poliſhed preſenting the varying ſplendour of ruby coloured velvet. The baikalite of the ſame author is of an olive green colour, and contains a ſufficient quantity of magneſia to be arranged in the muriatic claſs along with the peridot of the French, to which it ſeems nearly allied. The green felſpar of Siberia is a beautiful ſtone, by the Ruſſians carved into various ornaments. The Daourian mountains between the Onon and the Argoon alſo produce elegant onyx. The ſeive ſtone is an agatized fungites.[16] The beautiful ſtones called the hair of Venus and Thetis, being limpid rock cryſtals containing capillary ſchorl, red or green, are found near Catherinburg. The alliance ſtone conſiſts of a greyiſh porphyry, united, as if glued together, with tranſparent quartz.

The beautiful red and green jaſpers of Siberia are from the moſt diſtant mountains, as already mentioned; and lapis lazuli is found near the Baikal. The Uralian chain alſo preſents fine white marble; and in the numerous primitive ranges there are many varieties of granite and porphyry.

Mineral Waters. Mineral waters do not abound in Aſiatic Ruſſia. There is a fetid ſulphureous ſpring near Sarepta, on the frontier of Europe and Aſia, and ſeveral others in Siberia. The baths on the Terek, towards the

* The Siberian opals are only opalline rock cryſtals. Guthrie, 54. A curious rock of agate and clay, running as it were into each other, occurs near the river Iſett. Dec. R. iv. 371.

[16] Guthrie, ut ſupra.

Caucaſus, are of a middle temperature: and there are others in the province of Nerſhinſk; among the Kalmuks to the ſouth of the Altai in the country ſometimes ſtyled Soongaria; and in the neighbourhood of the ſea of Baikal. Vitriolic waters or chalybeates, the ſour ſprings of the Germans, are found near Catherinburg, in the midſt of the iron mines; nor are they unknown in Daouria. Springs impregnated with naphtha and petroleum occur near the Caſpian and the Baikal. Mineral Waters.

But the chief mineral waters are thoſe in Kamchatka, as deſcribed by Leſſeps. The hot baths of Natchikin, not far from a volcano in the ſouth of that peninſula, ſeem not to have been traced to their ſource, but they fall in a rapid caſcade about 300 feet above the baths, benevolently erected by Mr. Kaſloff, for the benefit of the Kamchadals, the ſtream being about a foot and a half deep, and ſix or ſeven feet wide. The water is extremely hot, and of a very penetrating nature, ſeeming to contain vitriolic and nitrous ſalts, with calcareous earth. On the weſt ſide of the gulph of Penjina is a hot ſpring which falls into the Tavatona, being of a great ſize and emitting clouds of ſmoke.

The chief natural curioſities of Aſiatic Ruſſia have already been incidentally mentioned.* The ſalt lakes near the Caſpian, and that ſea itſelf, may be regarded as ſingular features of nature. The ſublime ſcenes around the Baikal have been already deſcribed. Near the river Onon whole mountains are in ſummer on one ſide of a lilac colour, from the bloſſoms of the wild apricot; and on the other of a deep purple, from thoſe of the Daourian rhododendron.[17] The arctic levels of Siberia contraſt with the thick foreſts on the ſouth, which ſometimes overhang the roads and rivers with a gloomy and diſmal canopy. The numerous volcanoes of Kamchatka are alſo ſtriking objects; but none of them appear to have been minutely explored, the ſeverity of the Natural Curioſities.

* Near Kungur, on the European ſide of the Ural mountains, are remarkable caverns, ſaid to extend for ten verſts. Dec. R. iv. 407.

[17] Dec. Ruſ. v. 470.

climate

Natural Curiosities.

climate being adverſe to the curious traveller. Of moſt of them the ſmoke is perpetual, but they rarely throw out aſhes or lava.

ISLES BELONGING TO ASIATIC RUSSIA.

Isles.

These were formerly divided into the Aleutian, Andrenovian, and Kurilian groupes, with the Fox iſles, which extend to the promontory of Alaſka in North America. The Aleutian iſles, on the eaſt of Kamchatka, were multiplied by the early navigators as they ſaw them in different directions, but are now reduced to only two worth notice, Beering's iſle and Copper iſle. The Andrenovian iſles may be regarded as the ſame with the Fox iſlands, being the weſtern part of the ſame range: if they muſt be diſtinguiſhed, the Andrenovian form a groupe of ſix or more iſles, about 500 miles to the S. E. of Beering's.[18] It appears that the Fox and Andrenovian iſles are a kind of elongation of the American promontory of Alaſka, and may more juſtly be reſerved for the deſcription of N. America, late Engliſh navigators having diſpelled many doubts concerning the real poſition of theſe iſles. Beering's iſle, and Copper iſle, are both uninhabited, and do not merit particular deſcription.*

Kurilian.

The Kurilian iſles extend from the ſouthern promontory of Kamchatka towards the land of Jeſſo and Japan, being ſuppoſed to be about 20 in number, of which the largeſt are Poro Muſchir and Mokanturu. Several of theſe iſles are volcanic; and ſome contain foreſts of birch, alder, and pine. Moſt of them ſwarm with foxes of various colours. Even after the diſcoveries of La Perouſe it is difficult to diſtinguiſh what particular iſles in the ſouth of this chain are implied by the Ruſſian

[18] Coxe, Ruſſian Diſc. 25.; but he ſays the N. E.

* The Andrenovian iſles have almoſt vaniſhed from Engliſh maps and charts, which only admit the Aleutian or Fox iſlands; and the Ruſſian navigators muſt have erred groſsly in their obſervations.

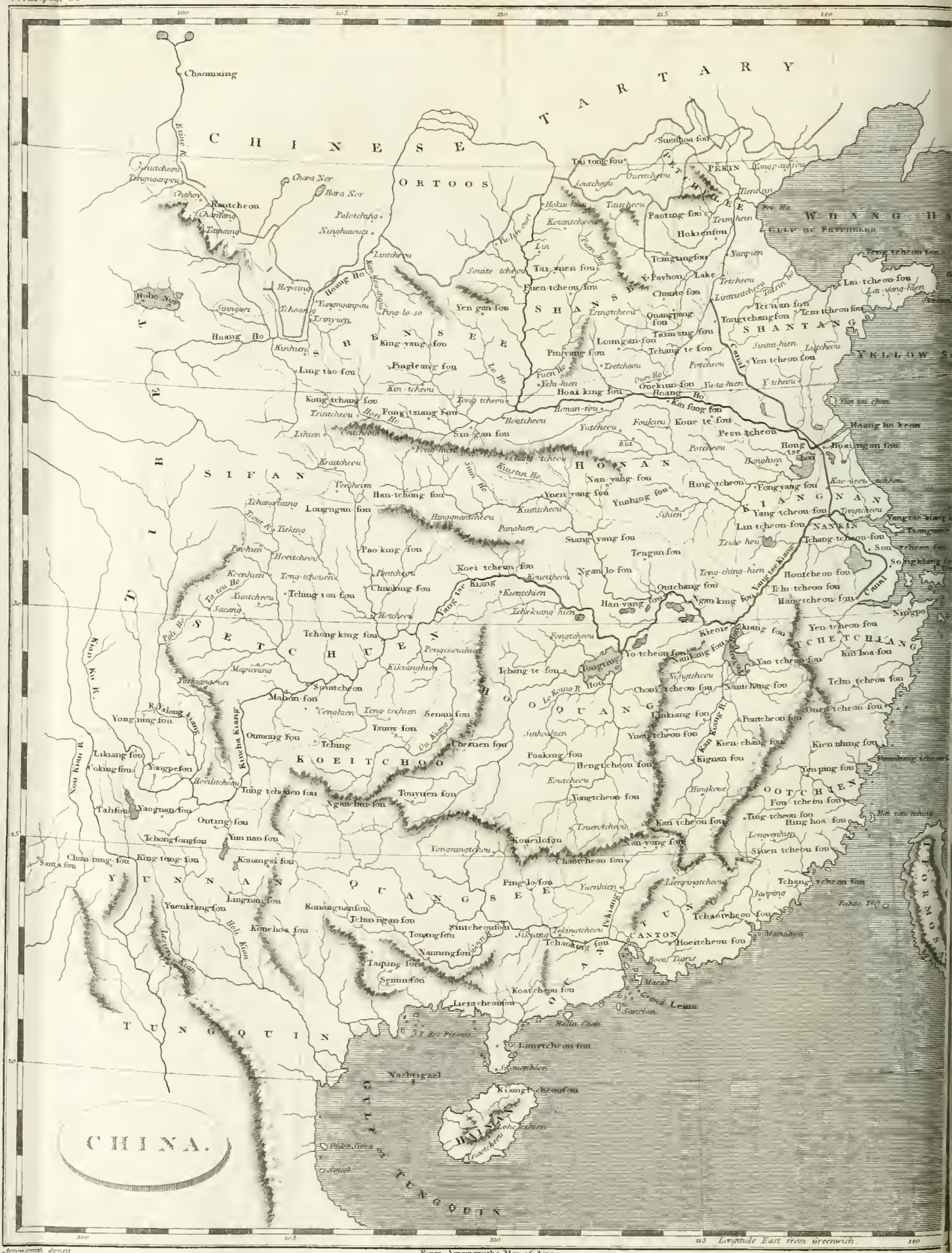
appellations. If Matmai be the land of Jeſſo, Tſhikota may be Staten land and Kunaſſyr the Companies Land; but it ſeems more probable that this laſt is Ou op, and that Jeſſo is Etorpu. The diſcoveries are too imperfect to admit of deciſion; and it would even appear that the Ruſſian navigators had, with their uſual confuſion, deſcribed the ſame iſlands under different names. The inhabitants of the Kurilian iſles ſeem to be of ſimilar origin with the Kamchadals; and in the interior of ſome is a people called hairy Kurilians, from what circumſtance is not explained. Isles

THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

IN the laſt century the Chineſe emperors, of the Mandſhur race, extended this wide empire over many weſtern countries, inhabited by wandering hords of Monguls, Mandſhurs, and Tatars; and eſtabliſhed ſuch firm influence over Tibet, that the Chineſe empire may now be conſidered as extending from thoſe parts of the Pacific ocean called the Chineſe and Japanic ſeas, to the rivers Saraſou and Sihon in the weſt,* a ſpace of 81°, which, taking the medial latitude of 30°, will amount to nearly 4200 geographical, or 4900 Britiſh miles. From N. to S. this vaſt empire may be computed from the Uralian mountains, lat. 50°, to the ſouthern part of China, about lat. 21°, being 29° of latitude, 1740 geographical, or nearly 2030 Britiſh miles.

Divisions. This empire therefore conſiſts of three principal diviſions; that of China proper; the territory of the Mandſhurs and Monguls, on the north and weſt; and laſtly the ſingular and intereſting region of Tibet or Tibbet. Theſe countries are not only ſo wide and important, but are ſo radically different in the form of government, in the manners, and other circumſtances, that it will be proper to deſcribe each apart.

* This ſuppoſes that the great hord of Kirguſes, who only pay homage to China, are included. But the mountains of Belur Tag, and the Palkati or Balkaſh lake, ſeem never to have been paſſed by the Chineſe. About 200 B. miles of medial length may in this caſe be ſubtracted.


CHINA.
CHINESE TARTARY
ORTOOS
THIBET
SIFAN
SHENSE
SHANSI
PERIN
HONAN
HOUQUANG
SETCHUEN
KOEITCHOO
YUNNAN
QUANGSE
KIANGNAN
NANKIN
SHANTANG
YELLOW S.
TCHETCHIANG
FOOTCHIEN
TUNG QUIN
CANTON
GULF OF PECHELEE
Chaomuring
Chara Nor
Hara Nor
Hoang Ho
Yang tse Kiang
Lake Payhou
Hoei tcheou fou
Yen tcheou fou
Hoai king fou
Nan yang fou
Yuen yang fou
Yunhing fou
Fong yang fou
Yang tcheou fou
Tchang tcheou fou
Lin tcheou fou
Tchang tcheou fou
Sou tcheou fou
Hou tcheou fou
Yen tcheou fou
Kin hoa fou
Tchu tcheou fou
Ou tcheou fou
Kien ning fou
Yen ping fou
Fou tcheou fou
Hing hoa fou
Sien tcheou fou
Tchang tcheou fou
Tchao tcheou fou
Hoei tcheou fou
Kiang tcheou fou
Tchao king fou
Kouei lin fou
Nan ning fou
Lien tcheou fou
Kiong tcheou fou
Yun nan fou
Tchong fong fou
Kong tong fou
Kouang si fou
Yuen kiang fou
Ling ngan fou
Kouei hoa fou
Tchen ngan fou
Tong ngan fou
Yong pe fou
Yao gnan fou
Tah fou
Outing fou
Tong tchuen fou
Touyuen fou
Ngan chun fou
Tchong king fou
Mahon fou
Soui tcheou
Tchen tou fou
Tchu king fou
Lu kiang fou
Ouei tcheou fou
Kien chang fou
Kiai nan fou
Pao king fou
Tchang te fou
Loung gan fou
Pin yang fou
Tai yuen fou
Tai tong fou
Suen hoa fou
Pao ting fou
Hoki en fou
Tong tchang fou
Tong tcheou fou
Lai tcheou fou
Ten tcheou fou
Tsing tcheou fou
Tsi nan fou
Tai gan fou
Ou tcheou fou
Ou ki tcheou fou
Ou ki tcheou fou
Ou ki

PART I.

CHINA PROPER.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Names.—Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Population.—Progreſſive Geography.—Hiſtorical Epochs.—Antiquities.

THIS diſtinguiſhed region is by the natives ſtyled Tchon-Koue, which ſignifies the centre of the earth, as they proudly regard other countries as mere ſkirts and appendages to their own. After the conqueſt of the northern part by the deſcendants of Zingis, it was ſtyled Cathay, a name loudly celebrated in travels, poetry, and romance; while the ſouthern part was known by the appellation of Mangi. The origin of the name of China, or Tſin, ſeems uncertain, but the connection between this word and the Sinæ of the ancients appears imaginary, the country of the Sinæ being ſhewn by Goſſellin to be much further to the weſt. The Mahometan travellers of the ninth century, publiſhed by Renaudot, (the authenticity of the work being now undoubted,) call this country Sin, but the Perſians pronounce it Tchin.[1] NAMES.

[1] Engliſh Tranſlation. Remarks. p. 40.

Extent. China proper extends from the great wall in the north to the Chineſe ſea in the ſouth, about 1140 geographical, or 1330 Britiſh miles. The breadth from the ſhores of the Pacific to the frontiers of Tibet may be computed at 884 geographical, or nearly 1030 Britiſh miles. In ſquare miles the contents have been eſtimated at 1,297,999, and in acres at 830,719,360.[2] On the caſt and ſouth the boundaries are maritime, and to the north they are marked by the great wall and the deſart of Shamo; the confines with Tibet on the weſt ſeem to be chiefly indicated by an ideal line, though occaſionally more ſtrongly marked by mountains and rivers: particularly according to D'Anville the river Yalon, which falls into the Kian-ku, the country of Sifan lying between Tibet and China, on the ſouth of the Eluts of Kokonor.

Boundaries.

Original Population. The population of China ſeems wholly aboriginal, but the form of the features appears to imply intimate affinity with the Tatars, Monguls, and Mandſhurs; yet the Chineſe probably conſtitute a fourth grand diviſion, not ſtrictly derived from either of theſe barbaric races.

Progreſſive Geography. The progreſſive geography of China, as known to the weſtern nations, is not of ancient date, whether with D'Anville we ſuppoſe the Sinæ to have been in Cochin China, or with Goſſellin place them in the weſtern part of Siam. The moſt ancient external relation which we poſſeſs is that of the two Mahometan travellers in the ninth century, who ſurpriſe us with accounts of barbariſm and cannibaliſm little to be expected: but the Arabs are ſo fond of fables, that implicit credit may be ſafely witheld from ſeveral paſſages. Yet theſe travellers impart high ideas concerning the Chineſe empire, and mention Canfu, ſuppoſed to be Canton, as a city of great trade, while the emperors reſided at Camdan, which ſeems to be the city alſo called Nankin, or the Southern Court, in contradiſtinction from Pekin or the Northern Court. This wide empire continued, however, obſcure to the inhabitants of Europe till the travels of Marco Polo appeared, in the end of the thirteenth century. Yet the work of this traveller remained ſo unknown that Pope Pius II, in his deſcription of Aſia,[3] is contented with the more imperfect account

[2] Macartney's Emb. iii. Appen.

[3] P. 18--28. Edit. Paris 1534. Pius wrote about 1450.

by Nicola Conti, a Venetian traveller of his own time who viſited Cathay.* Haitho the Armenian, who wrote his book on the Tatars about the year 1306, begins with an account of Cathay; and Oderic of Portenau deſcribed his voyage to China 1318.[4] Our Sir John Mandeville viſited China about 1340; and Pegoletti gave directions for the route in 1335.[5] But in the following century there ſeems to have been a ſtrange and unaccountable intermiſſion of intercourſe and reſearch, if we except the travels of Nicola Conti above mentioned; and ſo perithable was the knowledge acquired as to have eſcaped even a learned pontiff. After this relapſe of darkneſs, the rays of more genuine and authentic knowledge gradually emerged by the diſcovery of Cape of Good Hope, and the ſubſequent enterprizes of the Portugueſe. Progreſſive Geography.

The Chineſe hiſtory is ſaid to commence, in a clear and conſtant narration, about 2500 years before the birth of Chriſt. The founder of the monarchy is Fo-Hi; but the regular hiſtory begins with Yao.[6] The dynaſties or families who have ſucceſſively held the throne amount to 22, from the firſt named Hia, to the preſent houſe of Tſing.[7] Yu, the firſt emperor of the houſe of Hia, is ſaid to have written a book on agriculture, and to have encouraged canals for irrigation; and it is alſo aſſerted that he divided the empire into nine provinces. The ancient revolutions of China would little intereſt the general reader. The dynaſties, as uſual, generally terminate in ſome weak or wicked prince, who is dethroned by an able ſubject. Sometimes the monarchy is divided into that of the ſouth, which is eſteemed the ruling and ſuperior inheritance; and that of the north. The emperor Tai Tſong, who reigned in the ſeventh century after Chriſt, is regarded as one of the Hiſtorical Epochs.

* Cathay had been before faintly known to Europeans, from the travels of John de Plano Carpini 1245, and of Rubruquis, 1251. The account of the latter in particular is intereſting, as he viſited Cathay by the route of Karakum, the capital of the Mongul empire, placed by D'Anville on the Ongni Muren, but by Fiſcher in his hiſtory of Siberia on the eaſt ſide of the river Orchon, about 150 B. miles to the N. W.

[4] Forſter's Diſc. in the North, p. 147.

[5] Ib. 150. The original is to be found in a work entitled *Della Decima, e dalle altre gravezze. Liſbona e Lucca*, 1766, 4to.

[6] Du Halde, iii. 7. Haye, 1756. 4to.

[7] Ib. i. 266, &c.

greateſt

Historical Epochs.

greateſt princes who have filled the Chineſe throne. The Mandſhurs to the north of China repeatedly influenced the ſucceſſion to the empire; but the Monguls under Zingis and his ſucceſſors ſeized the five northern provinces. Hoaitſing, who began to reign A. D. 1627, was the laſt prince of the Chineſe dynaſties. Some unſucceſsful wars againſt the Mandſhurs had rendered this emperor melancholy and cruel; and inſurrections aroſe, the moſt formidable being conducted by two chiefs Li and Tchang. The former beſieged Pekin, which was ſurrendered by the general diſcontent, and the emperor retiring to his garden firſt ſlew his daughter with his ſabre, and afterwards hanged himſelf on a tree, having only lived 36 years. The uſurper ſeemed firmly ſeated on the throne, when a prince of the royal family invited the Mandſhurs, who advanced under their king Tſong Te. The Mandſhur monarch had ſcarcely entered China when he died; and his ſon of ſix years of age was declared emperor, the regency being entruſted to his uncle. This young prince, named Chun Tchig, was the firſt emperor of the preſent dynaſty, and has been followed by four princes of the ſame Mandſhur family.

Antiquities.

Among the remains of Chineſe antiquity may be mentioned the coins of the ancient dynaſties, of which arranged cabinets are formed by the curious natives. Du Halde has publiſhed many of theſe ancient coins, and to his work the reader is referred. There are alſo ſeveral pagodas, or ornamented towers, ſometimes erected in commemoration of great events; many temples, which are low buildings of a different conſtruction from the pagodas; and ſome triumphal arches, which boaſt conſiderable antiquity.

But the chief remain of ancient art in China is that ſtupendous wall, extending acroſs the northern boundary.[s] This work, which is deſervedly eſteemed among the grandeſt labours of art, is conducted over the ſummits of high mountains, ſome of which riſe to the height of 5225 feet, acroſs the deepeſt vales, over wide rivers by means of arches; and in many parts is doubled or trebled to command important paſſes: and at the diſtance of almoſt every hundred yards is a tower or maſſy

[s] Sir G. Staunton, ii. 360. 8vo.

baſtion. The extent is computed at 1500 miles; but in ſome parts of ſmaller danger it is not equally ſtrong or complete, and towards the N. W. only a rampart of earth. For the preciſe height and dimenſions of this amazing fortification the reader is referred to the work already quoted, whence it appears that near Koopekoo the wall is 25 feet in height, and at the top about 15 feet thick: ſome of the towers, which are ſquare, are 48 feet high, and about 40 feet wide. The ſtone employed in the foundations, angles, &c. is a ſtrong grey granite; but the greateſt part conſiſts of bluiſh bricks, and the mortar is remarkably pure and white. ANTIQUITIES.

Sir George Staunton conſiders the era of this great barrier as abſolutely aſcertained, and he aſſerts that it has exiſted for two thouſand years. In this aſſeveration he ſeems to have followed Du Halde, who informs us that "this prodigious work was conſtructed 215 years before the birth of Chriſt, by the orders of the firſt emperor of the family of Tſin, to protect three large provinces from the irruptions of the Tatars."[9] But in the hiſtory of China, contained in his firſt volume, he aſcribes this erection to the ſecond emperor of the dynaſty of Tſin, namely Chi Hoang Ti; and the date immediately preceding the narrative of this conſtruction is the year 137 before the birth of Chriſt.[10] Hence ſuſpicions may well ariſe, not only concerning the epoch of this work, but even with regard to the purity and preciſion of the Chineſe annals in general. Mr. Bell, who reſided for ſome time in China, and whoſe travels are deſervedly eſteemed for the accuracy of their intelligence, aſſures us[11] that this wall was built about 600 years ago, (that is about the year 1160,) by one of the emperors, to prevent the frequent incurſions of the Monguls, whoſe numerous cavalry uſed to ravage the provinces, and eſcape before an army could be aſſembled to oppoſe them. Renaudot obſerves that no oriental geographer, above 300 years in antiquity, mentions this wall:[12] and it is ſurpriſing that it ſhould have eſcaped Marco Polo; who, ſuppoſing that he had entered China by a different route, can hardly be conceived, during his long reſidence

[9] Tome ii. p. 54.
[10] Tome i. 340.
[11] Travels, ii. 112. 8vo.
[12] Ut ſupra, 137.

in

ANTIQUITIES.

in the north of China, and in the country of the Monguls, to have remained ignorant of ſo ſtupendous a work. Amidſt theſe difficulties, perhaps it may be conjectured that ſimilar modes of defence had been adopted in different ages; and that the ancient rude barrier having fallen into decay, was replaced, perhaps after the invaſion of Zingis, by the preſent erection, which even from the ſtate of its preſervation can ſcarcely aſpire to much antiquity.

CHAPTER II.

Political Geography.

Religion.—Eccleſiaſtical Geography.—Government.—Laws.—Population.—Colonies.—Army.—Navy.—Revenues.—Political Importance and Relations.

ACCORDING to Du Halde the ancient Chineſe worſhipped a ſupreme being, whom they ſtyled Chang Ti, or Tien, which is ſaid to imply the ſpirit which preſides over the heavens; but in the opinion of others is only the viſible firmament. They alſo worſhipped ſubaltern ſpirits, who preſided over kingdoms, provinces, cities, rivers, and mountains. Under this ſyſtem, which correſponds with what is called Shamaniſm, ſacrifices were offered on the ſummits of hills. The ſect of Tao See was founded on principles ſimilar to thoſe of Epicurus; but as the idea of death tended to diſturb their boaſted tranquillity, they invented a potion which was to confer imaginary immortality. Religion.

About A. D. 65 the ſect of Fo was introduced into China from Hindoſtan. The name was derived from the idol Fo, (ſuppoſed to be the Boodh of Hindoſtan,) and the chief tenets are thoſe of the Hindoos, among which is the Metempſycoſis, or tranſition of ſouls from one animal to another. The prieſts are denominated Bonzes, and Fo is ſuppoſed to be gratified by the favour ſhewn to his ſervants. Many ſubordinate idols are admitted; but as the Jeſuits found the followers of Fo the moſt adverſe to Chriſtianity, they have abſurdly enough called them atheiſts.

Since the fifteenth century many Chineſe literati have embraced a new ſyſtem, which acknowledges an univerſal principle, under the name of Taiki, ſeeming to correſpond with the ſoul of the world of ſome ancient philoſophers. This opinion may indeed deſerve the name

Religion. of atheiſm; nor is it unuſual to find ingenious reaſoners ſo far diſguſted with groſs ſuperſtitions as to fall into the oppoſite extreme of abſurdity.* But ſuch opinions are confined to very few; and the Chineſe are ſo far from being atheiſts that they are in the oppoſite extreme of polytheiſm, believing even in petty demons who delight in minute acts of evil, or good. There is properly no order of prieſts, except the Bonzes of the ſect of Fo; nor of courſe can any high prieſt aſpire to the imperial power. The ſect of Fo, and that of Lao Kian, which is the ſame with that of the Tai See, admit of monaſteries. The noted feſtival of lantherns is, according to Oſbek, celebrated in honour of the god of fire, to avert the danger of conflagration. The Chineſe temples are always open; nor is there any ſubdiviſion of the month known in the country.[1]

Government. The government of China is well known to be patriarchal. The emperor is indeed abſolute; but the examples of tyranny are rare, as he is taught to regard his people as his children, and not as his ſlaves. The ſtability of the government, in all its eſſential, and even minute forms and cuſtoms, juſtly aſtoniſhes thoſe who are the moſt verſed in hiſtory. It ariſes from a circumſtance unknown in any other government, the admiſſion and practice of the principle aſſerted by Lord Bacon that *knowledge is power*. For all the officers of government paſs through a regular education, and a progreſs of rank, which are held indiſpenſable. Of theſe officers, who have been called mandarins, or commanders, by the Portugueſe, there are nine claſſes, from the judge of the village to the prime miniſter. The profeſſion requiring a long and ſevere courſe of ſtudy, the practice of government remains, like that of medicine, unſhaken by exterior events; and while the imperial throne is ſubject to accident and force, the remainder of the machine purſues its uſual circle. In ſo vaſt an empire, with a computed population of more than 330,000,000, perhaps the ſtability of the ſtate is incompatible with much freedom; yet the ideas of an European are ſhocked

* It muſt however be remembered that even theſe literati admit the exiſtence of gods of various claſſes, emanated from the ſoul of the world. Hence they are in fact polytheiſts, who do not admit a ſupreme intelligent being.

[1] Pauw Recherches philoſophiques ſur les Egyptiens, et les Chinois. Tome ii. 217.

by

by the frequent uſe of the rod, a paternal puniſhment which would, in his eyes, appear the moſt degrading ſpecies of ſlavery The ſoldiers, however, ſhew the greateſt tenderneſs to the people; and every ſentence of death muſt be ſigned by the emperor. It is impoſſible to fix any general criterion of human opinions, which vary according to minute, and ſometimes inviſible circumſtances; and thus in China the prime miniſter may be chaſtened with rods, and acknowledge no mark of ſlavery in what he regards as a mere fatherly admonition. GOVERNMENT.

The governors of the provinces have great and abſolute power, yet rebellions are not unfrequent. Bribery is alſo an univerſal vice; and the Chineſe government, like many others, is more fair in the theory than in the practice. Yet the amazing population, and the general eaſe and happineſs of the people, evince that the practice of the government muſt be more beneficial than any yet known among mankind.

The Chineſe laws are ancient, but numerous; and edicts of the reigning dynaſty have reſtrained the mandarins within ſtricter limits of duty. Laws.

The population of China has been a topic of conſiderable debate. Pauw, a bold and deciſive aſſertor, and a declared enemy of the Jeſuits, has attacked all their deſcriptions of China. He obſerves, from Du Halde, that when the miſſionaries proceeded through the empire, to prepare their maps, they found in the greater part of the large governments countries of more than 20 leagues, little peopled, almoſt uncultivated, and often ſo wild that they are quite uninhabitable. Pauw alſo mentions the abundance of tigers, and the exiſtence of the Chineſe ſavages in the extenſive foreſts; and he ſuppoſes that the population is exaggerated when it is computed at 82,000,000.[2] In ſo wide an empire moſt of the features are on a large ſcale, nor can human induſtry overcome certain impediments of nature, as ridges of rocks, barren heaths, and extenſive ſwamps, in certain poſitions; and in the north of China large foreſts are indiſpenſably preſerved for the ſake of fuel. On a ſmaller ſcale ſuch obſtacles to univerſal population are Population.

[2] Recherches, i. 78.

GOVERNMENT.

found even in the moſt fertile countries, and Bagſhot heath, with perhaps ſeveral tents of gypſies, occur near the capital of England. Civil wars, which have repeatedly raged in China, may alſo deſolate parts of a country for a long period of time, while the inhabitants crowd to the cities and places of defence. As it would be abſurd to ſuppoſe that all China conſiſts of cultivable land, ſo it would be equally abſurd to deny that the population has impreſſed every traveller with aſtoniſhment, and with ideas totally different from thoſe of Pauw, who decided in his cabinet, in a ſpirit of enmity againſt his materials; and who ſeems to have forgotten that the want of cultivation in ſome diſtricts is balanced by that reſiding on the waters, millions of families paſſing their whole exiſtence in boats on the numerous rivers, lakes, and canals. The recent Engliſh embaſſy was aſtoniſhed at the exceſs of population; and Sir George Staunton has publiſhed the following table, from the information of a mandarin of high rank, who had every opportunity of exact knowledge.

Table of the population and extent of China Proper, within the great wall. Taken in round numbers from the ſtatements of Chow-la-Zhin.

PROVINCES.	POPULATION.	SQUARE MILES.	ACRES.
Pe-che-lee	38,000,000	58,949	37,727,360
Kiang-nan, two provinces	32,000,000	92,961	59,495,040
Kiang-See	19,000,000	72,176	46,192,640
Tche-kiang	21,000,000	39,150	25,056,000
Fo-chen	15,000,000	53,480	34,227,200
Hou-pe, Hou-nan } Hou-quang	14,000,000 / 13,000,000	144,770	92,652,800
Hon an	25,000,000	65,104	41,666,560
Shan-Tung	24,000,000	65,104	41,666,560*
Shan-ſee	27,000,000	55,268	35,371,520
Shen-ſee	18,000,000	154,008	98,565,120
Kan-fou	12,000,000		
Se-chuen	27,000,000	166,800	106,752,000
Canton	21,000,000	79,456	50,851,840
Quang-ſee	10,000,000	78,250	50,080,000
Yu nan	8,000 000	107,969	69,100,160
Koei-cheeu	9,000,000	64,554	41,314,560
	333,000,000	1,297,999	830,719,360

* This identic repetition muſt be erroneous.

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How far this table may deſerve implicit credit, may be doubted by thoſe who know the difficulty of ſuch reſearches, even in the moſt enlightened countries of Europe. GOVERNMENT.

As the Chineſe laws permit no native to leave his country, there can be no colonies properly ſo called.* The army has been computed at 1,000,000 of infantry, and 800,000 cavalry; and the revenues at about thirty-ſix millions and a half of tahels, or ounces of ſilver, or about nine millions ſterling; but as rice, and other grain, are alſo paid in kind it may be difficult to eſtimate the preciſe amount or relative value compared with European money.† Colonies. Army. Revenue.

The political importance and relations of China may be ſaid to be concentrated in itſelf, as no example is known of alliance with any other ſtate. It has been ſuppoſed that one European ſhip would deſtroy the Chineſe navy, and that 10,000 European troops might overrun the empire. Yet its very extent is an obſtacle to foreign conqueſt, and perhaps not leſs than 100,000 ſoldiers would be neceſſary to maintain the quiet ſubjugation; ſo that any foreign yoke might prove of very ſhort continuance. The recent conqueſt by the Mandſhurs happened in conſequence of the general deteſtation, excited againſt a ſanguinary uſurper; and the invaders were in the immediate proximity, while even a Ruſſian army would find almoſt inſurmountable difficulties on the route, and the conqueſt, like that by the deſcendants of Zingis, would infallably prove of ſhort duration. The Engliſh, in Hindoſtan, nearly approach to the Chineſe territories; but there can hardly ariſe any rational ground of diſſention in oppoſition to the intereſts of Britiſh commerce. Were the Chineſe government perſuaded of the utility of external relations, an alliance with the Engliſh might be adopted, as a protection againſt maritime outrage, while the Ruſſian power might be divided by connections with the ſovereigns of Perſia. Political Importance and Relations.

* Yet the number of Chineſe at Batavia, and other ſituations in the Oriental Archipelago, many of whom paſs as traders to and from their country, ſhews that theſe laws are little regarded.

† Sir George Staunton, iii. 390, eſtimates the revenue at 200,000,000 of ounces of ſilver, which he ſays equal 66,000,000l. ſterling; but valuing the ounce of ſilver at five ſhillings, the amount is 50,000,000l.

CHAPTER III.

Civil Geography.

Manners and Cuſtoms.—Language. — Literature. — Education. — Univerſities.— Cities and Towns.—Edifices.—Roads.—Inland Navigation.—Manufactures and Commerce.

Manners and Cuſtoms.

THE Chineſe being a people in the higheſt ſtate of civilization their manners and cuſtoms might require a long deſcription, eſpecially as they are extremely different from thoſe of other nations. The limits of this work will only admit a few hints. In viſiting the ſea ports of China, foreigners have commonly been impreſſed with the idea of fraud and diſhoneſty; but it is to be ſuppoſed that theſe bad qualities are not ſo apparent where there are fewer temptations. The indolence of the upper claſſes, who are even fed by their ſervants, and the naſtineſs of the lower, who eat almoſt every kind of animal, in whatever way it may have died, are alſo ſtriking defects, though the latter may be occaſioned by dire neceſſity in ſo populous a country. To the ſame cauſe may be imputed the expoſition of infants, a cuſtom which long prevailed in Scandinavia, and was not unknown in ancient Greece and Rome, but which always yielded to the progreſs of civilization. On the other hand the character of the Chineſe is mild and tranquil, and univerſal affability is very rarely interrupted by the ſlighteſt tincture of harſhneſs, or paſſion. Theſe qualities may be partly imputed to the vigilant eye of the patriarchal government, and partly to ſtrict abſtinence from heating foods, and intoxicating liquors. The general drink is tea, of which a larger veſſel is prepared in the morning for the occaſional uſe of the family during the day. Marriages

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Manners and Customs.

are conducted ſolely by the will of the parents, and polygamy is allowed. The bride is purchaſed by a preſent to her parents, and is never ſeen by her huſband till after the ceremony. Divorce is permitted in caſe of adultery, antipathy of temper, a claim urged by Milton; and even in caſe of juſt ground of jealouſy, of groſs indiſcretion, and diſobedience to the huſband, of barrenneſs, and contagious diſeaſes. Yet divorces are rare among the higher claſſes, whoſe plurality of wives enables them to puniſh by neglect. It is not permitted to bury in cities or towns, and the ſepulchres are commonly on barren hills, and mountains, where there is no chance that agriculture will diſturb the bones of the dead. The colour of mourning is white, that perſonal neglect or forgetfulneſs may appear in its ſqualor; and it ought on ſolemn occaſions to continue for three years, but ſeldom exceeds twenty-ſeven months.[1] The walls of the houſes are ſometimes of brick, or of hardened clay, but more commonly of wood; and they generally conſiſt only of a ground floor, though in thoſe of merchants there be ſometimes a ſecond ſtory, which forms the warehouſe. The houſes are ornamented with columns, and open galleries, but the articles of furniture are few. The dreſs is long, with large ſleeves, and a flowing girdle of ſilk. The ſhirt and drawers vary according to the ſeaſons; and in winter the uſe of furs is general, from the ſkin of the ſheep to that of the ermine. The head is covered with a ſmall hat, in the form of a funnel, but this varies among the ſuperior claſſes, whoſe rank is diſtinguiſhed by a large bead on the top, diverſified in colour according to the quality. The dreſs is, in general, ſimple and uniform; and on the audience given to lord Macartney that of the emperor was only diſtinguiſhed by one large pearl in his bonnet. The chief amuſements of the Chineſe ſeem to be dramatic exhibitions, fire works, in which they excel all other nations, and feats of deception and dexterity.

Language.

The language is eſteemed the moſt ſingular on the face of the globe. Almoſt every ſyllable conſtitutes a word, and there are ſcarcely 1500 diſtinct ſounds; yet in the written language there are at leaſt 80,000 characters, or different forms of letters, ſo that every ſound may have about 50 ſenſes.[2] The leading characters are denominated keys,

[1] Du Halde, ii. 146. [2] Staunton, iii. 418.

which.

Language. which are not of difficult acquiſition. The language ſeems originally to have been hieroglyphical; but afterwards the ſound alone was conſidered. Abſtract terms are expreſſed, as uſual, by relative ideas; thus *virtue*, which in latin implies ſtrength, among the Chineſe ſignifies filial piety; the early prevalence of knowledge in China excluding mere ſtrength from any meritorious claim.

Education. The ſchools of education are numerous, but the children of the poor are chiefly taught to follow the buſineſs of their fathers. In a Chineſe treatiſe of education, publiſhed by Du Halde, the following are recommended as the chief topics. 1. The ſix virtues, namely, prudence, piety, wiſdom, equity, fidelity, concord. 2. The ſix laudable actions, to wit, obedience to parents, love to brothers, harmony with relations, affection for neighbours, ſincerity with friends, and mercy with regard to the poor and unhappy. 3. The ſix eſſential points of knowledge, that of religious rites, muſic, archery, horſemanſhip, writing, and accompts. Such a plan is certainly more uſeful than the acquiſition of dead languages.

Cities and Towns. The chief cities of China are Pekin and Nankin, or the northern and ſouthern courts, the former being the Cambalu, or city of the Chan, in writings of the middle ages, the capital of Cathay, as Nankin was of

Pekin. Mangi. Pekin occupies a large ſpace of ground; but the ſtreets are wide, and the houſes ſeldom exceed one ſtory. The length of what is called the Tatar city is about four miles, and the ſuburbs are conſiderable.[3] The principal part, or that called the Tatar city, is ſo denominated, becauſe it was re-edified in the thirteenth century, under the dynaſty of the Tatars, or rather the Monguls.* By the beſt information, which the recent embaſſy could procure, the population was computed at 3,000,000. The houſes indeed are neither large nor numerous; but it is common to find three generations, with all their wives and children, under one roof, as they eat in common, and one room contains many beds. The neatneſs of the houſes, and various repletion of the ſhops, delight the eye of the viſitor. At Pekin the

[3] Staunton, ii. 297.

* So Staunton; but Du Halde, i 135, ſays it is ſo called becauſe the houſes were allotted to the Mandſhurs, in the beginning of the preſent dynaſty.

grand examinations take place, which confer the higheſt degree in literature, or in other words the chief offices in government. Exceſſive wealth, or poverty, ſeem equally unknown, as there is no right of primogeniture, and no hereditary dignity: and there are properly but three claſſes of men in China, men of letters, among whom the mandarins are ſelected; cultivators of the ground; and mechanics, including merchants.[4] The walls of this capital are of conſiderable ſtrength and thickneſs; and the nine gates of no inelegant architecture. Strict police and vigilance are obſerved, and the ſtreets are crowded with paſſengers and carriages. The grandeſt edifice is the imperial palace, which conſiſts of many pictureſque buildings, diſperſed over a wide and greatly diverſified ſpace of ground, ſo as to preſent the appearance of enchantment. CITIES AND TOWNS.

Nankin, which was the reſidence of the court till the fifteenth century, is a yet more extenſive city than Pekin, and is reputed the largeſt in the empire. The walls are ſaid to be about 17 Britiſh miles in circumference. The chief edifices are the gates with a few temples; and a celebrated tower clothed with porcelain, about 200 feet in height. Such towers were ſtyled pagodas by the Portugueſe, who ſuppoſed them to be temples; but they ſeem to have been chiefly erected as memorials, or as ornaments, like the Grecian and Roman columns. Nankin.

To the European reader one of the moſt intereſting cities is Canton, which is ſaid to contain a million and a half of inhabitants; numerous families reſiding in barks on the river. The European factories, with their national flags, are no ſmall ornaments to this city. The chief export is that of tea, of which it is ſaid that about 13,000,000 of pounds weight are conſumed by Great Britain, and her dependencies, and about 5,000,000 by the reſt of Europe. The imports from England, chiefly woollens, with lead, tin, furs, and other articles, are ſuppoſed to exceed a million; and the exports a million and a half, beſides the trade between China and our poſſeſſions in Hindoſtan. Other nations carry to Canton the value of about 200,000l. and return with articles to the value of about 600,000l. So that the balance in favour of China may be computed at a million ſterling. Canton.

[4] Staunton, ii. 329. But the military muſt be regarded as a fourth claſs.

Other Cities.

The other large cities of China are almoſt innumerable; and many of the villages are of a ſurpriſing ſize. Among the cities may be mentioned Singan, the capital of the province of Shenſi, Kayfong, that of Honan, Tayyuen of Shanſi, Tſinan of Shanton, Chingtu of Sechwun, Vuchang of Huquang, Nanchang of Kyangſi, Hangchew of Chekyang, Fuchew of Fokyen, Quegling of Quangſi, Queyyang of Queychew, and Yunnan of the weſtern province ſo called, with Shinyan, the chief city of the northern province of Lyautong, and Kinkitao of Corea, a dependency of China. Of theſe cities Singan is by ſome eſteemed equal to Pekin. In general the plan and fortifications are ſimilar; and a Mandſhur garriſon is carefully maintained.

Edifices.

The moſt ſtriking and peculiar edifices in China are the pagodas, or towers, already mentioned, which ſometimes riſe to the height of nine ſtories, of more than twenty feet each. The temples, on the contrary, are commonly low buildings, always open to the devout worſhippers of polytheiſm. The whole ſtyle of Chineſe architecture is well known to be ſingular, and is diſplayed with the greateſt ſplendour in the imperial palace at Pekin, which is deſcribed at great length by Du Halde, and Sir George Staunton. The late emperor chiefly reſided in the ſummer at the palace of Zheho, about 120 miles N. E. from Pekin, in the country of the Mandſhurs, not far beyond the great wall, where the various edifices of the palace are, as uſual, ſituated in a pleaſure ground of wide extent. The architecture is elegant, and highly ornamented; but the paintings of mean execution, as the Chineſe are ſtrangers to perſpective, and do not admit of ſhade, which they regard as a blemiſh.

Roads.

The roads are generally kept in excellent order, with convenient bridges. That near the capital is thus deſcribed by Sir George Staunton. "This road forms a magnificent avenue to Pekin, for perſons and commodities bound for that capital, from the eaſt and from the ſouth. It is perfectly level; the centre, to the width of about twenty feet, is paved with flags of granite, brought from a conſiderable diſtance, and of a ſize from ſix to ſixteen feet in length, and about four feet broad. On each ſide of this granite pavement is a road unpaved, wide enough for carriages to croſs upon it. The road was bordered in many places with trees,

trees, particularly willows of a very uncommon girth. The travellers ſoon paſſed over a marble bridge, of which the conſtruction appeared equal to the material. The perfection of ſuch a fabric may be conſidered to conſiſt in its being made as like as poſſible to that of which it ſupplies the want: and the preſent bridge ſeems to anſwer that deſcription; for it is very wide, and ſubſtantially built, over a rivulet not ſubject to inundations, and is little elevated above the level of the roads which it connects together." Roads.

The canals of China have long excited the envy and wonder of other nations. As the two grand rivers of Hoan ho and Kian ku bend their courſe from weſt to eaſt, the chief object was to interſect the empire from north to ſouth; which was in great meaſure accompliſhed by the imperial canal. This wonderful work, which in utility and labour exceeds the enormous wall, is ſaid to have been begun in the tenth century of the chriſtian era, 30,000 men having been employed for 43 years in its completion. Inland Navigation.

"This great work differs much from the canals of Europe, which are generally protracted in ſtraight lines, within narrow bounds, and without a current, whereas that of China is winding often in its courſe, of unequal and ſometimes conſiderable width, and its waters are ſeldom ſtagnant.

"The ground which intervened between the bed of this artificial river, and that of the Eu-ho, was cut down to the depth of about 30 feet, in order to permit the waters of the former to flow with a gentle current into the latter. Their deſcent is afterwards checked occaſionally, by flood gates thrown acroſs the canal, wherever they were judged to be neceſſary, which was ſeldom the caſe, ſo near as within a mile of each other, the current of the water being ſlow in moſt places. This canal has no locks like thoſe of Europe. The flood-gates are ſimple in their conſtruction, eaſily managed, and kept in repair at a trifling expence. They conſiſt merely of a few planks, let down ſeparately one upon another, by grooves cut into the ſides of the two ſolid abutments, or piers of ſtone, that project one from each bank, leaving a ſpace in the middle juſt wide enough to admit a paſſage for the largeſt veſſels em-

Inland Navigation.

ployed upon the canal. As few parts of it are entirely level, the uſe of theſe flood gates, aſſiſted by others cut through its banks, is to regulate the quantity of water in the canal. Some ſkill is required to be exerted, in order to direct the barges through them without accident. For this purpoſe an immenſe oar projects from the bow of the veſſel, by which one of the crew conducts her with the greateſt nicety. Men are alſo ſtationed on each pier with fenders, made of ſkins ſtuffed with hair, to prevent the effect of the veſſels ſtriking immediately againſt the ſtone, in their quick paſſage through the gates.

"Light bridges of timber are thrown acroſs thoſe piers, which are eaſily withdrawn whenever veſſels are about to paſs underneath. The flood-gates are only opened at certain ſtated hours, when all the veſſels collected near them in the interval paſs through them, on paying a ſmall toll, appropriated to the purpoſe of keeping in repair the flood-gates, and banks of the canal. The loſs of water occaſioned by the opening of the flood-gate is not very conſiderable, the fall at each ſeldom being many inches; and which is ſoon ſupplied by ſtreams conducted into the canal from the adjacent country on both ſides. The fall is, however, ſometimes above a foot, or two, when the diſtance between the flood-gates is conſiderable, or the current rapid. The canal was traced often in the beds of ancient rivers, which it reſembled in the irregularity of its depth, the ſinuoſity of its courſe, and the breadth of its ſurface, where not narrowed by a flood-gate. Wherever the circumſtances of the adjacent country admitted the water in the canal to be maintained in a proper quantity, without any material deficiency, or exceſs, by means of ſluices managed in its ſides, for the purpoſe of influx, or diſcharge, as was the caſe farther to the ſouthward, few flood-gates were neceſſary to be conſtructed; nor were there any where met above half a dozen in a day."[5]

The ſame author deſcribes this canal as beginning at Lin-ſin-choo, where it joins the river Eu-ho, and extending to Han-choo-foo, in an irregular line of about 500 miles. Where it joins the Hoan-ho, or Yellow river, it is about three quarters of a mile in breadth. From the ſubſequent narrative it appears that Du Halde, Le Comte, and other

[5] Sir G. Staunton, iii. 204.

French authors, have been miſled when they ſuppoſed that the imperial canal extends from Canton to Pekin, while half of the courſe is ſupplied by river navigation, and ſmaller canals, and it is ſometimes interrupted by mountainous diſtricts.* In the ſouth the river Kan Kian, which runs from S. W. to N. E., ſupplies a very conſiderable part of the navigation. INLAND NAVIGATION.

To enumerate the other canals of China would be infinite, as there is a large canal in every province, with branches leading to moſt of the towns and villages.

The manufactures of China are ſo multifarious, as to embrace almoſt every article of induſtry. The moſt noted manufacture is that of porcelain; and is followed in trade by thoſe of ſilk, cotton, paper, &c. The porcelain of China has been celebrated from remote ages, and is chiefly prepared from a pure white clay called kaolin: while the petunſi is underſtood to be a decayed felſpar. Some writers add ſoap rock, and gypſum.[6] The excellent imitations which have appeared in various countries of Europe, more elegant in the form and painting, have conſiderably reduced the value of the Chineſe manufactory. Manufactures and Commerce.

The internal commerce of China is immenſe, but the external trade is unimportant, conſidering the vaſtneſs of the empire. A ſcanty intercourſe exiſts with Ruſſia, and Japan; but the chief export is that of tea, which is ſent to England to the value of about one million yearly.

* Phillips, p. 8, ſeq. gives a very erroneous idea of the length of this canal.

[6] Staunton, iii. 300.

CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seaſons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Foreſts.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Mineral Waters.—Natural Curioſities.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.

THE European intercourſe with China being chiefly confined to the ſouthern part of the empire, the climate is generally conſidered as hot, whereas the northern part of this extenſive country is liable to all the rigours of the European winter.[1] At Pekin ſuch is the effect of the great range of Tatarian, or rather Manſhurian, mountains covered with perpetual ſnow, that the average degree of the thermometer is under 20° in the night, during the winter months; and even in the day it is conſiderably below the freezing point. The inhabitants, unaccuſtomed to domeſtic fires, increaſe their cloathing; but in large buildings there are ſtoves provided with foſſil coal, which is found in abundance in the vicinity. In an empire ſo wide, ſuch a diverſity of climate and ſeaſons muſt occur that no general deſcription can ſuffice. Perhaps every vegetable production, adapted to uſe or luxury, might be reared within the Chineſe boundaries.

Face of the Country.

The face of the country is infinitely diverſified; and though in a general view it be flat and fertile, and interſected with numerous large rivers and canals, yet there are chains of granitic mountains, and other diſtricts of a wild and ſavage nature. Cultivation has however conſiderably reduced the number and extent of ſuch features, whence the natives ſeek to diverſify the ſameneſs of improvement, by introducing them in miniature into their gardens. In general the appearance of the

[1] Staunton, iii. 157.

country is rendered ſingularly pictureſque by the peculiar ſtyle of the buildings, and uncommon form of the trees and plants. FACE OF THE COUNTRY.

The ſoil is infinitely various, and agriculture, by the account of all travellers, carried to the utmoſt degree of perfection. The extent of the internal commerce has had the ſame effect as if wealth had been procured from foreign climes; and the advantage has been laudably uſed in the improvement of the country. It is well known that the emperor himſelf ſets an annual example of the veneration due to agriculture, the firſt and moſt important province of human induſtry. Sir George Staunton thus expreſſes his ideas of Chineſe agriculture:[2] Soil and Agriculture.

"Where the face of the hill or mountain is not nearly perpendicular to the level ſurface of the earth, the ſlope is converted into a number of terraces, one above another, each of which is ſupported by mounds of ſtone. By this management it is not uncommon to ſee the whole face of a mountain completely cultivated to the ſummit. Theſe ſtages are not confined to the culture of any particular vegetable. Pulſe, grain, yams, ſweet potatoes, onions, carrots, turnips, and a variety of other culinary plants, are produced upon them. A reſervoir is ſunk in the top of the mountain. The rain water collected in it is conveyed, by channels, ſucceſſively to the different terraces, placed upon the mountain's ſides. In ſpots too rugged, barren, ſteep, or high for raiſing other plants, the camellia ſeſanqua, and divers firs, particularly the larch, are cultivated with ſucceſs.

"The collection of manure is an object of ſo much attention with the Chineſe, that a prodigious number of old men and women, as well as of children, incapable of much other labour, are conſtantly employed about the ſtreets, public roads, banks of canals, and rivers, with baſkets tied before them, and holding in their hands ſmall wooden rakes, to pick up the dung of animals, and offals of any kind, that may anſwer the purpoſe of manure; but above all others, except the dung of fowls, the Chineſe farmers, like the Romans according to the teſtimony of Columella, prefer ſoil or the matter collected by nightmen in London, in the vicinity of which it is in fact applied to the ſame uſes; as has already been alluded to in deſcribing a viſit to the Lowang pea-

[2] iii. 306.

ſant

Soil and Agriculture.

ſant in a former part of this work. This manure is mixed ſparingly with a portion of ſtiff loamy earth, and formed into cakes, dried afterwards in the ſun. In this ſtate it ſometimes becomes an object of commerce, and is ſold to farmers, who never employ it in a compact ſtate. Their firſt care is to conſtruct large ciſterns for containing, beſides thoſe cakes and dung of every kind, all ſorts of vegetable matter, as leaves or roots or ſtems of plants, mud from the canals, and offals of animals, even to the ſhavings collected by the barbers. With all theſe they mix as much animal water as can be collected, or of common water as will dilute the whole; and in this ſtate, generally in the act of putrid fermentation, they apply it to the ploughed or broken earth. In various parts of a farm, and near paths and roads, large earthen veſſels are buried to the edge in the ground, for the accommodarion of the labourer or paſſenger, who may have occaſion to uſe them. In ſmall retiring houſes, built alſo upon the brink of roads, and in the neighbourhood of villages, reſervoirs are conſtructed of compact materials to prevent the abſorption of whatever they receive, and ſtraw is carefully thrown over the ſurface from time to time, to ſtop the evaporation. And ſuch a value is ſet upon the principal ingredient for manure, that the oldeſt and moſt helpleſs perſons are not deemed wholly uſeleſs to the family by which they are ſupported.

" The quantity of manure collected by all theſe means muſt however be ſtill inadequate to that of the cultured ground, which bears ſo vaſt a proportion to the whole ſurface of the country. It is reſerved therefore, in the firſt inſtance, for the purpoſe of procuring a quick ſucceſſion of culinary vegetables, and for forcing the production of flowers and fruit. Among the vegetables raiſed moſt generally, and in the greateſt quantities, is a ſpecies or variety of braſſica, called by the Chineſe pe-tſai, or white herb, which is of a delicate taſte, ſomewhat reſembling what is called coſs-lettuce, and is much reliſhed in China by foreigners as well as natives. Whole acres of it are planted every where in the vicinity of populous cities; and it was ſometimes difficult to paſs on a morning through the crowds of wheel-barrows, and hand-carts, loaded with this plant, going into the gates of Pekin and Han-choo-foo. It ſeems to

to thrive beſt in the northern provinces, where it is ſalted for winter conſumption, and in that ſtate is often carried to the ſouthward and exchanged for rice. That grain, and that herb, together with a reliſh of garlick or of onions, in room of animal food, and followed by a little infuſion of coarſe tea, ſerve often as a meal for a Chineſe peaſant or mechanic. The Chineſe huſbandman always ſteeps the ſeeds he intends to ſow in liquid manure, until they ſwell, and germination begins to appear; which experience, he ſays, has taught him to have the effect of haſtening the growth of plants, as well as of defending them againſt the inſects hidden in the ground in which the ſeeds were ſown. Perhaps this method has preſerved the Chineſe turnips from the fly, that is often fatal to their growth elſewhere. To the roots of plants and fruit trees the Chineſe farmer applies liquid manure likewiſe, as contributing much towards forwarding their growth and vigour. The Roman author, already quoted in this chapter, relates that a ſimilar practice had much improved the apples and vines of Italy. SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.

"The great object of Chineſe agriculture, the production of grain, is generally obtained with little manure, and without letting the land lie fallow. It is true that there are plants, ſuch as a ſpecies of the epidendron, that is capable of vegetating in air alone. Others, as bulbous roots and ſucculent plants, which thrive beſt in ſand, and a great variety in water; but, with thoſe exceptions, virgin or vegetable earth is the proper bed of vegetation: and whatever may be the theory of the agricultural art, its practice certainly requires that there ſhould be given to the ſoil ſuch a texture and conſiſtency as may be found moſt ſuitable to the plants intended to be raiſed. Such a texture may in moſt caſes be obtained by the application of manures, being generally a mixture of animal and vegetable ſubſtances, that have undergone the putrefactive fermentation. A mucilage is thus formed, which beſides any other changes it may produce, is found to give a new conſiſtence to the ſoil with which it comes in contact, to render clay more friable, and to give tenacity to light and ſandy ſoils; as well as to maintain in both a proper degree of temperature and humidity."

This ingenious and well informed author proceeds to applaud the induſtry of the Chineſe, in mingling their ſoil, and in the irrigation of land,

Soil and Agriculture.

which laſt they conſider as a leading principle of agricultural ſkill. The plough is ſimple, and managed by one perſon, having but one handle, and no coulter, which is deemed unneceſſary, as there is no lea ground, and conſequently no turf to cut through, in China. The huſbandry is ſingularly neat, and not a weed is to be ſeen.

Rivers.

In deſcribing the rivers of this great empire two are well known to deſerve particular attention, namely the Hoan-ho and the Kian-ku. The ſources of the firſt, alſo called the Yellow river, from the quantity of mud which it devolves, are two lakes, ſituated amongſt the mountains of that part of Tatary known by the name of Kokonor. They lie about the 35° of north latitude, and 19° of longitude, to the weſtward of Pekin, being, according to Arrowſmith's map of Aſia, about 97° eaſt from Greenwich.[3] This prodigious river is extremely winding and devious in its courſe, purſuing a N. E. direction to about the 42° of north latitude, and after running due eaſt it ſuddenly bends ſouth to a latitude nearly parallel to its ſource, and purſues an eaſterly direction till it be loſt in the Yellow ſea. Its comparative courſe may be eſtimated at about 1800 Britiſh miles; or according to the late embaſſy, 2150. At about 70 miles from the ſea, where it is croſſed by the imperial canal, the breadth is little more than a mile, and the depth only about nine or ten feet; but the velocity equals about ſeven or eight miles in the hour.[4]

The Kian-ku riſes in the vicinity of the ſources of the Hoan-ho; but according to the received accounts and maps about 200 miles further to the weſt, and winds nearly as far to the ſouth as the Hoan-ho does to the north. After waſhing the walls of Nankin it enters the ſea about 100 miles to the ſouth of the Hoan-ho. The Kian-ku is known by various names through its long progreſs; and near its ſource is called by the Eluts Porticho or Petchou; the courſe is about equal to that of the former, theſe two rivers being conſidered as the longeſt on the face of the globe: they certainly equal, if they do not exceed, the famous river of the Amazons in South America, and the majeſtic courſe of the Ganges does

[3] Staunton, iii. 232; but the *ſtarry fountains* are more to the weſt. See the atlas and deſcription by Du Halde.

[4] Ib. iii. 234.

not

notextend half the length. In the late embaſſy the length of the Kian-ku is eſtimated at about 2200 miles; and it is obſerved that theſe two great Chineſe rivers, taking their ſource from the ſame mountains, and paſſing almoſt cloſe to each other, in a particular ſpot, afterwards ſeparate from each other to the diſtance of 15° of latitude, or about 1050 Britiſh miles; and finally diſcharge themſelves into the ſame ſea, comprehending a track of land of about 1000 miles in length, which they greatly contribute to fertilize. Rivers.

To theſe grand rivers many important ſtreams are tributary; but it would be infinite to enumerate the various waters which enrich and adorn this wide empire. The Eu-ho in the north; the Hoan-ho, the Lo-kiang, the Kan-kiang, the Ou-kiang, and others, in the centre; and the Hon-kiang, Pe-kiang, and others in the ſouth, are chiefly noted by geographers, who are more inclined to fill their maps with names of towns and villages, than to diſcriminate the laſting features of nature.

Nor is China deſtitute of noble and extenſive lakes. Du Halde informs us that the lake of Tong-tint-hou, in the province of Hou-quang, is more than 80 leagues in circumference. That of Hong-ſi-hou is partly in the province of Kiang-nan, and partly in an adjoining diviſion of the empire. That of Poyang-hou, in the province of Kiang-Si, is about thirty leagues in circumference, and is formed by the confluence of four rivers as large as the Loire: this laſt is of dangerous navigation. There is alſo a conſiderable lake, not far to the ſouth of Nankin, called Tai-hou; and the map of D'Anville indicates a number of ſmaller lakes, chiefly in the eaſtern and central parts of China. Some of theſe lakes are deſcribed in the late embaſſy, as thoſe of Paoyng, Tai-hou, and Sec-hoo. Upon a lake near the Imperial canal were obſerved thouſands of ſmall boats and rafts, conſtructed for a ſingular ſpecies of fiſhery. "On each boat, or raft, are ten or a dozen birds, which, at a ſignal from the owner, plunge into the water; and it is aſtoniſhing to ſee the enormous ſize of fiſh with which they return, graſped within their bills. They appeared to be ſo well trained that it did not require either ring or cord about their throats, to prevent them from ſwallowing any portion of their prey, except what the maſter was pleaſed to return to them, for encouragement and food. The boat uſed Lakes.

Lakes. by theſe fiſhermen is of a remarkable light make, and is often carried to the lake, together with the fiſhing birds, by the men who are there to be ſupported by it."

The large lake of Wee-chaung-hoo is alſo deſcribed in the embaſſy as a ſingular ſcene of nature, and of induſtry; this lake, with ſeveral others, appear to be omitted in the maps. That of Tai-hoo is ſurrounded by a chain of pictureſque hills, and was full of pleaſure boats, many of them rowed by a ſingle female.[5]

Mountains. Concerning the extenſive ranges of Chineſe mountains, no general and accurate information has yet been given. Du Halde's ample deſcription of the Chineſe empire only informs us that ſome abound with mines of ſilver, others produce marble and cryſtal, while ſome ſupply medicinal herbs. But the ancients give ideas at once general and preciſe, while modern information is often confuſed from its minuteneſs, and the conſideration of the grand features of nature is ſacrificed to that of the petty exertions of man. From the ſame author we learn that the provinces of Yunnan, Koeitcheou, Setchuen, and Fokien, are ſo mountainous as greatly to impede their cultivation; and that of Tchekiang has dreadful mountains on the weſt. In the province of Kiangnan there is a diſtrict full of high mountains, which alſo abound in the provinces of Chenſi and of Shanſi. This imperfect information is little enlarged by the account publiſhed of the late embaſſy;* and perhaps Mr. Arrowſmith's recent map of Aſia contains as authentic information as can be procured concerning the courſe and extent of the Chineſe mountains. It hence appears that a conſiderable branch extends from thoſe in central Aſia, running ſouth to the river Hoan-ho. Two grand ranges, running E. and W., interſect the centre of the empire, ſeemingly continuations of the enormous chains of Tibet. In the ſouthern part of China the principal ridges appear to run from N. to S.

The Chineſe chains of mountains, ſome of which are ſuppoſed to to rival the Apennines and Pyrennees, may be ſeven or eight in number; but ſo imperfect is ſtill our knowledge of this empire, that no general

[5] Staunton, iii. 220.

* The Abbé Grofier's account is equally imperfect, and only filled with idle tales.

appel-

appellations have been conferred, and ſcarcely is the name of one Chineſe mountain known to geography. D'Anville amidſt all his care, and exuberance of information from French jeſuits who had long reſided in China, lays down the mountains on his uſual plan in all his maps, as confuſed ſpots ſcattered over the whole country, ſo that in this grand department he may be ſaid to yield even to the meaneſt of his predeceſſors. Mountains.

Such is the cultivation diffuſed throughout China, that few foreſts remain except in the mountainous diſtricts. Near the royal palaces there are indeed foreſts of great extent, but they rather bear the appearance of art than of nature. Foreſts.

The number of Europeans who have been allowed to viſit the interior of China is ſo ſmall, and thoſe to whom this privilege has been granted having objects of more urgency to attend to than the indigenous plants of this vaſt empire, we are as yet only in poſſeſſion of ſome ſcattered fragments of the Chineſe flora. The neighbourhood of Canton has been ſurveyed by Oſbeck, and a meagre liſt of plants is to be found in Staunton's account of the Engliſh embaſſy there. Theſe are almoſt the only authentic ſources that have been hitherto opened, and are calculated rather to excite than to ſatisfy the botanical enquirer. Botany.

Among the trees and larger ſhrubs we find particularized the thuya orientalis, an elegant evergreen; the laurus camphora, *camphor tree*, whoſe wood makes an excellent and durable timber, and from the roots of which that fragrant ſubſtance camphor is procured by diſtillation; euphorbia neriifolia, *oleander-leaved ſpurge*, a large ſhrub uſed as a material for hedges; hibiſcus ficulneus and mutabilis, the latter of which is a tree of conſiderable ſize, and eminently conſpicuous for its ſplendid bloſſoms; rhamnus lineatus; lawſonia inermis; croton ſebiferum, *tallow tree*, from the fruit of which a green wax is procured that is manufactured into candles; ficus indicus, the ſpreading *banyan tree*, growing among looſe rocks; ſalix Babylonica, *weeping willow*; fagus caſtanea, *Spaniſh cheſtnut*; and pinus larix, the *larch*. Of the fruit trees the following are the principal: citrus medica and Chinenſis, *China orange*; muſa paradiſiaca, *plantain tree*; tamarindus indicus, *tamarind*; morus albus and papyriferus, the *white* and *paper mulberry* tree, the former

Botany. mer of theſe is principally cultivated for the uſe of its leaves, on which the ſilk worms are fed; and of the bark of the latter, paper, and a kind of cloth, are made. Nor muſt the two ſpecies of the *tea tree*, thea viridis and bohea, be left unnoticed, whoſe leaves conſtitute ſo large a proportion of the European trade with China.

Several beautiful plants grow wild in the hedges, ſuch as gomphrena globoſa, *globe amaranth;* impatiens balſamina, *balſam;* and that elegant climber ipomea quamoclit; bœckea fruteſcens, brionia cordifolia, and hedyſarum pulchellum.

Of thoſe plants that grow in China by the river ſides, or in marſhy places, the moſt worthy of notice are the ſmilax china and ſarſaparilla; maranta galanga, *galangale*, uſed in medicine; nymphæa nelumbo, a ſpecies of *water lily*, the roots of which are eſculent; arundo bambos, *bamboo*, the largeſt plant of the graſs kind, the ſtems of which, from their lightneſs and ſtrength, are applied to a multitude of uſeful purpoſes; mimoſa Chinenſis, aralia Chinenſis, cacalia incana, and after indicus, *China-after*, a common ornament of our gardens; the ſplendid and capricious ixia, and the elegant azalea-indica. Among ruins and in ſhady places are urtica nivea, *ſnowy nettle;* canna indica, *Indian reed*; caſſica ſophora, convallaria ſinenſis, and hedyſarum gangeticum.

Beſides the multitude of vegetables that are cultivated as articles of human food, and which are probably natives of India, Japan, and the neighbouring iſlands, the following are found in a truly wild ſtate in China, viz. three ſpecies of dolichos, *kidney bean;* d. ſinenſis, *calvanſes;* d. ſoya, from the beans of which the true Indian ſoy is made; and d. cultratus: dioſcorea alata, *yam;* cucurbita ſinenſis, *China gourd;* nicotiana tabacum, *tobacco;* and convolvulus battatas, *ſweet potatoe.*

The rocks and mountainous parts, as far as they have been examined, abound with beautiful plants, among which may be particularized ixora coccinea, a moſt elegant ſhrub, with large ſcarlet bloſſoms; nauclea orientalis; convolvulus hirtus; *hairy bindweed*, with yellow flowers; monarda ſinenſis; daphne indica; and lobelia zeylanica.

A few others which have been introduced into our gardens remain to be mentioned: celoſia criſtata; mirabilis odorata; crotalaria juncea;

roſa indica, *China roſe;* dianthus ſinenſis, *China pink*; and barleria criſtata. Botany.

The zoology of China may be conceived to be extremely various and intereſting, as many even of the common animals differ ſo much in their appearance from thoſe found in other countries. Such is the opulence of materials in every department of zoology, that the reader muſt be referred to Oſbeck, and other ſedulous enquirers into natural hiſtory, for ſatisfaction on a ſubject which might extend to ſeveral volumes. There are few animals which are not known in the other regions of the eaſt, but an attempt to point out the diverſities in the ſpecies would exceed the limits of the preſent deſign. Du Halde aſſerts that the lion is not found among the Chineſe animals; but there are tigers, buffaloes, wild boars, bears, rhinoceroſes, camels, deer, &c.[6] Some of the camels are not higher than horſes, with two hunches, while that kind called the dromedary, with one hunch, is found in the northern parts of Africa, and other comparatively temperate regions, being more numerous than the camel. The muſk deer is another ſingular animal of China as well as Tibet: and Du Halde has enumerated ſeveral fabulous animals, like the griffins and dragons of claſſical fable, among which is a large ape, which is ſaid to imitate all the actions of man, and a kind of tiger reſembling a horſe covered with ſcales. Among the birds many are remarkable for their beautiful forms and colours, in which they are rivalled by a variety of moths and butterflies. Zoology.

Among the metals lead and tin ſeem to be the rareſt. China produces mines of gold, ſilver, iron, white copper, common copper, mercury, lazulite or lapis lazuli, jaſper, rock cryſtal, loadſtone, granite, porphyry, and various marbles. According to ſome, rubies are found in China; but others aſſert that they come from Ava. Mineralogy.

In many of the northern provinces foſſil coal is found in abundance. According to Du Halde it forms veins in the rocks, which would conſtitute an uncommon circumſtance in the hiſtory of that mineral. The common people generally uſe it, pounded with water, and dried in the form of cakes. Du Halde ſays that the uſe of it was dangerous from its ſuffocating ſmell, except a veſſel of water were placed near the ſtove.

[6] ii. 184. i. 32.

Pekin

Mineralogy. Pekin is ſupplied from high mountains in the vicinity, and the mines ſeem inexhauſtible, though the coal be in general uſe.

Mines of ſilver are abundant, but little worked, from an apprehenſion of impeding the progreſs of agriculture; an idle fear, for ſilver might as well be exported as tea. The gold is chiefly derived from the ſands of certain mountains, ſituated in the weſtern part of the provinces of Sechuen and Yunnan, towards the frontiers of Tibet. That precious metal is ſeldom uſed, except by the gilders; the emperor alone having ſolid veſſels of gold.

Tutenag, which is a native mixture of zinc and iron, ſeems to be a peculiar product of China; and in the province of Houquang there was a mine which yielded many hundred weight in the courſe of a few days.

The copper of Yunnan, and other provinces, ſupplies the ſmall coin current through the empire: but there is a ſingular copper of a white colour, called by the Chineſe *petong*, which deſerves particular notice. This metal muſt not be confounded with the tutenag, an error not unfrequent. It is indeed ſometimes mingled with tutenag to render it ſofter, according to Du Halde; but there is a better method in mingling it with one fifth part of ſilver.

The Chineſe muſical ſtone is a kind of ſonorous black marble. Lazulite is found in Yunnan, Sechuen, and Shanſi. Several of the Chineſe idols and ſmall veſſels are formed of ſmectite, or indurated ſteatites, of a delicate white or yellow, with a greaſy appearance. The mountains in the north and weſt of China no doubt furniſh a number of other mineral objects, which may have eſcaped notice, amidſt the imperfect knowledge which Europeans have yet attained of this extenſive empire.

Mineral Waters. Mineral waters muſt be numerous in ſo wide a country, and the Chineſe rarely neglect any natural advantage; but travellers do not ſeem to have recorded any ſprings eſpecially memorable.

Natural Curioſities. The natural curioſities of China are in the like predicament.

CHINESE

CHINESE ISLANDS.

NUMEROUS iſles are ſcattered along the ſouthern and eaſtern coaſt of China, the largeſt being thoſe of Taiwan, alſo called Formoſa, and that of Hainan. Formoſa is a recent acquiſition of the Chineſe in the latter end of the ſeventeenth century, the natives being by the Chineſe accounts little better than ſavages. It is divided from north to ſouth by mountains, and the chief Chineſe poſſeſſions are in the weſtern part. Du Halde has given a ſhort hiſtory of Formoſa, which may be conſulted by the curious reader, who on this occaſion may perhaps recollect the ſingular forgeries of the pretended Pſalmanazar. In 1782 Formoſa was viſited by a terrible hurricane, and the ſea roſe to ſuch a height as to paſs over a great part of the iſland; but the Chineſe emperor cauſed the damages to be repaired with paternal care.[7] Isles.

The ſouthern part of Hainan is mountainous, but the northern more level and productive of rice. In the centre there are mines of gold; and on the ſhores are found ſmall blue fiſhes, which the Chineſe eſteem more than thoſe which we call gold and ſilver fiſh; but they only ſurvive a few days when confined to a ſmall quantity of water.

The iſles of Leoo-keoo, between Formoſa and Japan, conſtitute a little civilized kingdom tributary to China. Theſe iſles are ſaid to be thirty-ſix in number, but very inconſiderable, except the chief, which is properly and peculiarly called Leoo-keoo, and by the Chineſe accounts is 440 *lys* in length, probably that *ly* or Chineſe ſtadium of which 250 conſtitute a degree, ſo that the length will be about 125 Britiſh miles, nearly twice the extent which is aſſigned in recent maps. The capital, called Kintching, is ſaid by Groſier to be on the S. E. ſide of the iſle, while D'Anville and others place it on the S. W.* When our author affirms that theſe iſles conſtitute a powerful and extenſive empire, a ſmile muſt be excited by the exaggeration; but the natives ſeem to rival the Hindoos in chronology, as their royal dynaſties are ſaid to have continued for eighteen thouſand years. Theſe iſles were *diſcovered* by

[7] Groſier's General Deſcription of China, Eng. Tr. i. 225.

* This may be a miſtake of Groſier, or his Engliſh tranſlator, for the work is far from being infallible. Yet upon the whole it is the beſt deſcription of China which has appeared, and it is only to be wiſhed that the compiler had quoted his authorities.

Isles. the Chineſe in the ſeventh century, while the Phenicians had diſcovered Britain at leaſt four centuries before Chriſt; but it was not till the fourteenth century that they became tributary to China. The emperor Kang-hi, about A. D. 1720, ordered a temple to be erected to Confucius in the chief iſland, with a literary college. The language is ſaid to differ from that of China or Japan; but the civilization ſeems to have proceeded from the latter country, as the Japaneſe characters are commonly uſed. The people are mild, affable, gay, and temperate: and the chief products are ſulphur, copper, tin, with ſhells, and mother of pearl.

PART II.

CHINESE TATARY.

CHAPTER I.

Historical Geography.

Names.—Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Population.—Progreſſive Geography.—Hiſtorical Epochs and Antiquities.

THE vulgar name of Tartary, or more properly Tatary, was originally extended over the vaſt regions lying between Tibet, China, and the Arctic ocean; and from the Black Sea in the weſt, to the utmoſt bounds of north eaſtern diſcovery in Aſia. As more preciſe knowledge has ariſen the northern part has acquired the name of Siberia, while the ſouthern, in ſome maps of recent date, is known by the appellations of weſtern and eaſtern Tartary. Yet even in this part, which might more properly be ſtyled Central Aſia, the Tatars properly ſo denominated are few; the moſt numerous tribes being Monguls in the weſt, and Mandſhurs in the eaſt. But the various nations ſubject to the Chineſe have not been diſcriminated with the accuracy which Pallas and other travellers have employed in illuſtrating the origin of thoſe ſubject to Ruſſia. Names.

Names. It is however ſufficiently clear, from the accounts of Du Halde and Pallas, that the Oelets, or Eluts, are the ſame people with the Kalmucs, who poſſeſs the regions of Gete and Little Bucharia, with the parts on the N. and E. of Turfan formerly held by the Ugurs or Eygurs, a Finniſh nation who had wandered from the north. The Kalkas are alſo Monguls, as are the Ortoos between the Chineſe wall and great river Hoan Ho. It is equally aſcertained that the inhabitants of the province of Nertchinſk, or Ruſſian Daouria, are Tunguſes, who are a chief branch of the Mandſhurs.[1] And the Tagours, or Daourians, ſubject to China on the eaſtern ſide of the great range called Siolki, are alſo Mandſhurs, who extend to the eaſtern ocean, while in Siberia the Tunguſes ſpread as far weſt as the river Yeniſei.

Upon the whole this extenſive region might more properly be called Mongolia, as the greater number of tribes are Monguls; or the weſtern part might be ſtyled Tatary, the middle Mongolia, and the eaſtern Mandſhuria. The two latter are the objects of the preſent deſcription; as that of Independent Tatary will be found after the account of Perſia, with which it has (as now limited) in all ages been connected.

Extent. This wide and intereſting portion of Aſia, which has repeatedly ſent forth its ſwarms to deluge the arts and civilization of Europe, extends from the 72d° of longitude eaſt from Greenwich to the 145th°, a ſpace of not leſs than 73° of longitude, which at the medial latitude of 45° will yield about 3100 geographical miles. The breadth from the northern frontier of Tibet to the Ruſſian confines is about 18 degrees, or 1080 geographical miles. The boundary towards Ruſſia has been already deſcribed. From the treaty publiſhed by Du Halde[2] it appears that the river Kerbetchi, being the neareſt to the river Chorna (called by the natives Ourouon), and which diſcharges itſelf into the great river Sagalien Oula, was the Chineſe definition of the boundary between the empires; to which were added the long chain of mountains above the ſource of the river Kerbetchi, and the river Ergone or Argoon. The eaſtern boundary is the ſea, while the ſouthern extends along the great Chineſe wall, and the northern limits of Tibet. The weſtern boundary is ſupplied by the celebrated mountains of Belur Tag or the

[1] Dec. Ruſſ. tome vi. 253, &c. [2] iv. 242.

Cloudy

Cloudy Mountains, which divide the Chineſe empire from Balk, and the Greater Bucharia; while the range on the weſt of the lake Palkati ſeparates the Kalmucs, ſubject to China, from the Kirguſes of Independent Tatary. EXTENT.

The original population of central Aſia appears to have been indigenal, ſo far as the moſt ancient records extend. Part of the weſt was held by the Scythæ of antiquity, ſeemingly a Gothic race, who were ſubdued or expelled by the Tatars or Huns from the eaſt, preſſed on the other ſide by the Monguls. Beyond the latter were the Mandſhurs, who though inferior to the Monguls in power, yet retained their ancient poſſeſſions, and in the ſeventeenth century conquered China. At preſent the chief inhabitants are the Mandſhurs of the eaſtern provinces; with the tribes denominated Kalkas, Eluts, and Kalmucs, who are Monguls as already mentioned. The information concerning central Aſia is indeed very lame and defective; and though the late Ruſſian travellers afford a few hints, yet the jealouſy of the Chineſe, and other cauſes, have contributed to prolong our ignorance concerning this intereſting region. Original Population.

Though Ptolemy have laid down with ſome degree of accuracy the country of the Seres or Little Bucharia, the progreſſive geography of central Aſia may be ſaid to commence with the travels of Marco Polo, in the end of the thirteenth century. Yet prior to this epoch the victories of Zingis and his immediate ſucceſſors, having excited the attention of Europe, the friar Plano Carpini travelled a conſiderable way into Tatary, and found the emperor not far from the frontiers of China. This envoy was followed by Rubruquis, whoſe real name ſeems to have been Ruyſbroeck, and who appears to have viſited the countries on the banks of the Onon. But the travels of Polo being more extenſive, and more minutely deſcribed, he is juſtly regarded as the father of Tataric geography, and his deſcription of the countries to the north of Tibet, including Tangut,* and other names which have vaniſhed from modern geography, is not a little intereſting. Yet a diſſertation, aided by Progreſſive Geography.

* This appears to have been the country immediately to the N. W. of the Chineſe province of Shenſi. See Forſter's Hiſt. Voy. and Diſc. in the North, p. 107.

Progressive Geography.

the moſt recent reſearches, would be required to reduce his geography to any preciſion.

The more recent accounts, among which may be mentioned the travels of Gerbillon, publiſhed by Du Halde, and thoſe of Bell, with ſome hints of Pallas, may be ſaid to embrace but ſmall portions of this vaſt territory.* The imperfect ſtate of knowledge concerning this country may be imagined, when even D'Anville has been obliged to have recourſe to Marco Polo!

Hiſtorical Epochs.

The chief hiſtorical epochs of this part of Aſia may perhaps be more certainly traced in the Chineſe annals, than in any other documents. The firſt appearance of the Huns or Tatars may be obſerved in the pages of Roman hiſtory. The annals of the Monguls, the moſt important nation, faintly illuminate the pages of Abulgaſi, whence it would appear that prior to Zingis there was only one celebrated chan named Oguz, who ſeems to have flouriſhed about the 130th year of the Chriſtian era. The reigns of Zingis and Timur are ſufficiently known in general hiſtory; but the diviſions of their conqueſts, and the diſſentions of their ſucceſſors, have now almoſt annihilated the power of the Monguls, who being partly ſubject to China, and partly to Ruſſia, it is ſcarcely conceivable that they can again diſturb the peace of their neighbours.

Antiquities.

Few antiquities remain to illuſtrate the power of the Monguls. Karacum, or Caracorum, alſo called Holin by the Chineſe, the capital city of the Mongolian power, is now ſo far obliterated that geographers diſpute concerning its ſituation, D'Anville placing it, with a confeſſion of uncertainty, on the river Onghin, while others aſſign the banks of the river Orchon, about 150 B. miles to the N. W. It is probable that when this region ſhall be more fully explored by travellers, ſeveral tombs, temples, and other remains of antiquity, may be diſcovered.

* The notes to the *Hiſtoire Genéalogique des Tatars*, Leyde, 1726, 8vo. muſt not be forgotten amidſt the few materials.

CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Religion. — Government. — Laws. — Population. — Army. — Political Importance and Relations.

THE religion moſt univerſally diffuſed in this part of Aſia is what has been called Shamaniſm, or the belief in a ſupreme author of nature, who governs the univerſe by the agency of numerous inferior ſpirits of great power. The Kalkas were accuſtomed to acknowledge a living Lama, or great ſpirit embodied; a form of ſuperſtition which will be better illuſtrated in the account of Tibet.[1] RELIGION.

The government was formerly monarchical, with a ſtrong mixture of ariſtocracy, and even of democracy. At preſent it is conducted by princes who pay homage to the Chineſe empire, and receive Chineſe titles of honour; but many of the ancient forms are retained. Though writing be not unknown among the Monguls, yet the laws appear to be chiefly traditional. GOVERNMENT.

Of the population of theſe regions it is difficult to form any preciſe ideas. As the numerous tribes ſubject to Ruſſia are found, under ſplendid appellations, to preſent but a ſlender number of individuals, not exceeding two or three millions, it may perhaps be reaſonable to infer that amidſt the wide deſarts and barren mountains of central Aſia, there do not inhabit above ſix millions. POPULATION.

A proper enumeration would indeed depend upon authentic enquiries into the ſtate of the various tribes. The country of the Mandſhurs is by the Chineſe divided into three great governments. 1. That of

[1] A curious account of the religion of the Monguls may be found in the ſixth volume of the *Decouvertes Ruſſes*. The *gellungs* or prieſts are the *gylongs* of Tibet, and the other features ſeem to correſpond.

Population. Chinyang comprizing Leaodong, ſurrounded in part by a ſtrong barrier of wood. The chief town is Chinyang, alſo called Mugden by the Mandſhurs, ſtill a conſiderable place, with a mauſoleum of Kunchi, regarded as the conqueror of China, and the founder of the reigning family.[2] 2. The government of Kiren-Oula, which extends far to the N. E., where there are many foreſts and deſarts on both ſides of the great river Sagalien. Kirem the capital ſtands on the river Songari, which falls into the Sagalien or Amur, and was the reſidence of the Mandſhur general, who acted as viceroy.[3] 3. The government of Tſitchicar, ſo called from a town recently founded on the Nonni Oula, where a Chineſe garriſon is ſtationed. The Ruſſians call this province Daouria, from the tribe Tagouri, who poſſeſs a great part of this territory. The weſtern boundary is the river Argoon, the frontier between Ruſſia and China, alſo marked in the treaty by another river, the Kerbetchi, which ſeems to have vaniſhed from recent maps. Theſe provinces having been the ſeat of the Mandſhur monarchy before the conqueſt of China, have ſince that event remained ſubject to their ancient ſovereigns.

In this diviſion may alſo be mentioned Corea, which has for many centuries acknowledged the authority of China, and which boaſts a conſiderable population. The language, according to Du Halde, differs from the Chineſe, and from what he calls the Tataric, probably the Mandſhur. That writer may be conſulted for a more particular account of this extenſive province; the geography of which ſtill remains rather doubtful.

To the weſt are various tribes of Monguls; as the Kalkas; thoſe around Koko Nor, or the Blue Lake, who are alſo called Œlets, Eluts, or Kalmucs, the terms only implying particular Mongul branches. The Eluts have been greatly reduced by two deſtructive wars againſt the Chineſe in 1720 and 1757; and their contaiſch, or great chan, has diſappeared. Their country may be conſidered under three diviſions. 1. That part called Gete even to the time of Timur, which ſome regard as the country of the ancient Maſſagetæ, towards the lakes of Palkati, Balkaſh or Tengis, and Zaizan. The contaiſch uſed chiefly to

[2] La Croix, ii. 221. [3] Du Halde, iv. 7.

reſide

reſide at Harcas or Erga on the river Ili, which flows from the S. E. into the lake of Balkaſh. 2. Little Bucharia, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from the Greater Bucharia, which is ſubject to the Uſbeks, a Tataric nation: but the people of Little Bucharia are an induſtrious race of a diſtinct origin, who are little mingled with their Kalmuc or Mongul lords. 3. The countries of Turfan to the north of the lake called Lok Nor, and that of Chamil or Hami to the eaſt, regions little known, and ſurrounded with wide deſarts.* Upon the whole it may perhaps be found that the Mandſhurs are the moſt populous race; and that the Monguls, though diffuſed through a vaſt territory, can hardly boaſt the name of a nation. The Kirguſes, or Tatars proper of the weſt, are confined to a ſmall and unfertile diſtrict; and may more properly be conſidered as belonging to Independent Tatary. POPULATION.

It is probable that this part of the Chineſe empire might muſter a large but ineffectual army; and amidſt modern tactics and weapons little needs be apprehended from a new deluge of Mongul barbarians. If the various tribes of Mandſhurs, Monguls, and Tatars were to coaleſce under ſome chief of great abilities, the political importance and relations of central Aſia might reſume their former fame; but their intereſts are now ſo various and diſcordant, that while the empires of Ruſſia and China exiſt, they can only be regarded as connected with the policy of theſe powerful ſtates. Army.

* See remarks on the geography of theſe countries in the account of Great Bucharia. Turfan is commonly included in Little Bucharia; and Gete is the Soongaria of the Ruſſians. *Soongaria* means the left hand, as thoſe tribes adoring towards the eaſt call Tibet *Barontala*, or the region on the right.

CHAPTER III.

CIVIL GEOGRAPHY.

Manners and Cuſtoms.— Language.— Literature.—Cities and Towns.—Manufactures and Commerce.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

THE manners and cuſtoms of the Monguls have been already briefly deſcribed in the account of Aſiatic Ruſſia. Du Halde obſerves that theſe wandering nations "appear always contented, and free from care; of a happy temper, and a gay humour, always diſpoſed to laughter, never thoughtful, never melancholy." And he adds "what reaſon "can they have to be ſo? they have neither neighbours to pleaſe, nor enemies to fear, nor great people to court; and are free from difficult buſineſs, or conſtrained occupation, delighting themſelves only in the chace, in fiſhing, and various exerciſes, in which they are very ſkilful."[1]

The Mandſhurs, who here deſerve particular notice, are little diſtinguiſhable in their manners from the Monguls. By the account of the jeſuits they have no temples, nor idols, but worſhip a ſupreme being, whom they ſtyle emperor of heaven. But probably their real creed is Shamaniſm, or a kind of rational polytheiſm, not unknown to the Jews, who admitted, as appears from Daniel, great angels or ſpirits, as protectors of empires. Of the three grand nations perhaps the Mandſhurs may be regarded as approaching the neareſt to civilization, eſpecially ſince their conqueſt of China: and their advancement muſt have been greater, ſince the late emperor ordered the beſt Chineſe books to be tranſlated into the Mandſhur language. Yet the Chineſe retain great antipathy againſt their conquerors, whom they deſpiſe as a filthy race of ſavages. The Mandſhurs are of a more robuſt form, with countenances

[1] iv. 32.

leſs

leſs expreſſive; and the feet of their women are not disfigured like thoſe of the Chineſe. The head dreſs of this ſex conſiſts of natural and artificial flowers. The general raiment is the ſame as the Chineſe.[2] Manners and Customs.

The three languages of the Mandſhurs, Monguls, and Tatars, radically differ from each other. M. Langles publiſhed at Paris, about ten years ago, a proſpectus of an intended dictionary of the Mandſhur language, in which he pronounces it the moſt learned and perfect of the Tataric idioms, not excepting that of Tibet, though not written till the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, when the monarch charged ſome literati to deſign letters after thoſe of the Monguls, nearly reſembling thoſe of the Ugurs, which to the eye of M. Langles ſeemed to ſpring from the Stranghelo, or ancient Syriac. Yet from the account of this author it appears that the Mandſhur grammar preſents 1500 groupes of ſyllables, which he has analyſed into 29 letters; of which the greater part have three forms, as they happen to appear in the beginning, middle, or end of a word. Language.

Of the native literature of the Mandſhurs little is known, except that a code of laws was drawn up by the order of one of the monarchs, prior, it is believed, to the conqueſt of China. The imported literature by the tranſlation of Chineſe works muſt be conſiderable. Literature.

This extenſive portion of Aſia contains ſeveral cities and towns, generally conſtructed of wood, and of little antiquity or duration. Theſe ſhall be briefly mentioned, paſſing from the weſt towards the eaſt. Cities and Towns.

In Little Bucharia appear the cities of Caſhgar, Yarkand, Kotun, and Karia. Caſhgar was formerly a remarkable town, giving name to a conſiderable kingdom, the limits of which nearly correſponded with Little Bucharia.[3] This town, though fallen from its ancient ſplendour, ſtill retains ſome commerce. Yarkand ſtands on a river of the ſame name, which, after a long eaſterly courſe, falls into the lake of Lop.*

Turfan, the capital of a detached principality, is a conſiderable town, which uſed to be frequented by the merchants paſſing from Perſia to

[2] Staunton, ii. 358. [3] Hiſtoire des Tatars, 388.

* According to Petis de la Croix, in his learned notes on Sherefeddin, Yarkand is only another name for Caſhgar; but this opinion ſeems confuted by the letter of the Chineſe general. See Independent Tatary. Kotun, whence perhaps cotton derives its name, is alſo called Chateen, and was a flouriſhing city in the laſt century. Bentink, 193.

Cities and Towns.

China. Hami, Chami, or according to others Chamil, gives name to a ſmall diſtrict in the immenſe deſart of Cobi, and according to Du Halde is a ſmall but populous place.* Some towns occur further to the ſouth, but ſeemingly are only uſual ſtations for tents, the Monguls preferring the nomadic life.

The ancient city of Karakum has vaniſhed, as already mentioned; but to the eaſt of the great deſart, and near the frontiers of China, ſeveral Mongul towns appear in the maps. Coucou ſeems to be the Couchan of Du Halde, a ſmall town ſeated on a hill near a river which falls into the Hoan-ho. The others are yet more inconſiderable.

The country of the Mandſhurs contains many villages and cities, as Hotun Sagalian Oula, ſo called from its poſition on that river, in the country of the Tahouria, modernized Daouria; likewiſe Tſitchikar, already mentioned, with Merguen, Petouna, Kirin Oula, and Ningouta. On the north and eaſt of the great river Amur ſcarcely the veſtige of a village appears. Of thoſe here enumerated Petouna or Pedne was, in the time of Du Halde, chiefly inhabited by Mandſhur ſoldiers and exiles, under the command of a lieutenant general. Ningouta was alſo the reſidence of a Mandſhur general, and the ſeat of a conſiderable trade, particularly in the celebrated plant called ginſeng, which abounds in the neighbourhood. Sagalian Oula† Hotun ſignifies the city of the black river, and is the chief Mandſhur ſettlement on that noble ſtream.[4]

The chief city of Corea is Kinkatao, of which we may be ſaid only to know the name.

Trade.

The principal trade of the Mandſhur country conſiſts in ginſeng, and pearls, found in many rivers which fall into the Amur. Excellent horſes may alſo be claſſed among the exports. Caſhgar was formerly ce-

* Groſier, in his deſcription of China, i. 336, gives an intereſting account of Hami, which is about half a league in circumference, with two beautiful gates. It ſtands in a fertile plain, watered by a river, ſheltered by hills on the N. The gardens and fields are delightful: and fine agates are found, but the diamonds ſeem fabulous.

† In the Mandſhur language Oula ſignifies a river, as in the Chineſe Kiang. Du Halde, iv. 530. *Pira* implies the ſame. In the Mongul *Muren* is a river; *Alin* a mountain, alſo *Tabàhan*; *Hata* is a rock. In the Tatar or Turkiſh *Tag* is a mountain, *Daria* a river.

[4] Du Halde, iv. 19.

lebrated for muſk and gold.* The other towns are rather ſtations for merchants than ſeats of commerce. But the emporia of the Ruſſian trade with China muſt not be forgotten, being on the Ruſſian ſide Zuruchaitu on the river Argoon, and Kiachta; oppoſite to which, on the Chineſe frontier, are correſpondent ſtations erected of wood. TRADE.

* Corea alſo produces gold, ſilver, iron, beautiful yellow varniſh, and white paper, ginſeng; with ſmall horſes about three feet high, ermine, beaver, and foſſil ſalt. Du Halde, iv. 558.

CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seaſons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Foreſts.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Mineral Waters.—Natural Curioſities.

CLIMATE. THOUGH the parallel of central Aſia correſpond with that of France, and part of Spain, yet the height, and ſnows of the mountainous ridges occaſion a degree, and continuance of cold, little to be expected from other circumſtances. In climate and productions it is however far ſuperior to Siberia.

Face of the Country. The appearance of this extenſive region is diverſified with all the grand features of nature, extenſive chains of mountains, large rivers, and lakes. But the moſt ſingular feature is that vaſt elevated plain, ſupported like a table, by the mountains of Tibet in the ſouth, and Altaian chain in the north, from the mountains of Belur Tag in the weſt, to

Plain of Aſia. thoſe that bound the Kalkas in the eaſt. This prodigious plain, the moſt elevated continuous region on the globe, is interſected by ſome

Shamo Deſart. chains of mountains, and by the vaſt deſarts of Cobi and Shamo, by others conſidered as the ſame, the former being the Mongul, the latter the Chineſe name. Deſtitute of plants and water it is dangerous for horſes, but is ſafely paſſed with camels. Little has been added to our knowledge of central Aſia ſince D'Anville drew up his maps, from the materials furniſhed by the Jeſuits in China, in which it would ſeem that this deſart extends from about the 80th° of E. longitude from Greenwich, to about the 110th°, being 30° of longitude, which in the latitude of 40°, may be 1380 geographical miles: but in this wide extent are Oaſes, or fertile ſpots, and even regions of conſiderable extent.

extent. On the other hand the main deſart ſends forth ſeveral barren branches in various directions. FACE OF THE COUNTRY.

Among the ſouthern Mandſhurs, and the people of Little Bucharia, agriculture is not wholly neglected, nor is wheat an unknown harveſt. The ſoil of ſo extenſive a portion of the earth may be ſuppoſed to be infinitely various; but the predominating ſubſtance is black ſand. Agriculture.

The moſt important river is that called by the Ruſſians the Amur, by the Mandſhurs Sagalian Oula. The Amur is deſervedly claſſed among the largeſt rivers; riſing near the Yablonoi mountains, where it is firſt known by the names of Kerlon and Argoon, and purſuing an eaſterly courſe of about 1850 Britiſh miles. The Amur is the grand receptacle of the Mandſhur ſtreams, among which the moſt conſiderable is the Songari, which itſelf receives the large river Nonni. The Ruſſian waters of Selinga, and Irtiſh alſo pervade a part of central Aſia. The river of Yarkand, perhaps the Occhardes of Ptolemy, has a conſiderable courſe before it enters the lake of Lop. The Ili, which falls into the lake of Balkaſh, is noted in Tataric hiſtory. Rivers.

Some of the lakes are of great extent, as thoſe of Balkaſh, or Tengis, and Zaizan, each about 150 miles in length. Next is the Koko Nor, by ſome called Hoho Nor, or the blue lake, which gives name to a tribe of the Monguls. *Nor* is the Mongol term for a lake, which by the Mandſhurs is ſtyled *Omo*. Lakes.

The vaſt ranges of mountains which interſect central Aſia have never been ſcientifically deſcribed, and few of them have even received extenſive and appropriated appellations. It is highly probable that ſome of theſe ranges far exceed the Alps in height, as Pallas thinks that Elburz, the ſummit of the Caucaſian chain, is higher than Mont Blanc: and probably the mountains of Aſia are on as grand a ſcale as the rivers, and other features of nature. On the weſt the great chain called Imaus by the ancients, the Belur Tag, or Dark Mountains of the natives, runs from N. to S. Mountains.

In the eaſtern country of the Mandſhurs the ridges of mountains are laid down in the ſame direction.

The chief difficulties attend thoſe in the centre. Thoſe on the Ruſſian frontier have been well deſcribed; but of the northern moun-

Mountains. tains of Tibet, and the ſources of the Ganges, our knowledge remains imperfect. Still fainter light falls on the ridges which run in an eaſterly and weſterly direction to the north of the great deſart. It has already been obſerved, in deſcribing the mountains of Aſiatic Ruſſia, that the great mountain of Bogdo gives ſource to the upper Irtiſh, and muſt therefore be that delineated in Arrowſmith's map of Aſia, at longitude 94°, and latitude 47°. Thence a chain runs N. W. called the Golden Mountain, being the main Altaian ridge, while to the S. E. paſſes a range called Changai. A ridge paſſing to the weſt is by the Tatars called Ala-Tau, and ſometimes Allakoola, or the Checquered Mountain. From the Arakoola, or Allakoola, the river Ili runs to the north.'

Further illuſtrations of this curious and obſcure ſubject may be derived from the map publiſhed by Iſlenieff, a Ruſſian officer, of a great part of weſtern Tatary.* It is, however, to be regretted that the ranges of mountains, which ought to have been delineated with as much preciſion as the rivers, are rather faintly indicated. Paſſing in ſilence the ſmaller mountains named in this map, which are very numerous, ſome remarks may be offered on the larger chains. That of Bogdo runs from S. W. to N. E., about a degree and a half from the lake Lop, or Lok Nor. The chief Altaian chain paſſes in a more northerly direction, terminating towards the eaſt at the lake of Upſa, whence it proceeds N. W. towards the lake of Altyn; then bending S. W. forms the boundary between the Ruſſian and Chineſe empires. But as the greater Altai has little connexion with that extenſive frontier, it may be doubted whether Pallas, and Pennant have judiciouſly aſſigned the name of Altaian chain to the prodigious ridge which divides the Ruſſian empire from the Chineſe.† Iſlenieff marks the leſſer Altai

' Tooke's Ruſſia, i. 149.

* Major Rennell is inclined to lend little credit to the Ruſſian maps, becauſe there is, as he conceives, an error of 5° of longitude, Samarcand, for inſtance, being placed about long. 69° from London, inſtead of 64°. But in this mode of arguing Ptolemy would not deſerve to be once quoted; and the Ruſſian maps ſeem, on the contrary, preferable to all others, till actual obſervations can be employed.

† When the Altai joins this grand boundary it is called the Chatai, or Leſſer Altai. Hence Cathaian chain might be preferable.

as

as being alſo denominated Chatai, or Chaltai: and continues the Ruſſian frontier to the weſt, by the chain of Uluk Tag, whence ſeveral rivers flow into the Irtiſh. He alſo lays down a range, called Algidym Zano, in the country of the Kirguſes of the middle hord. MOUNTAINS.

The chain of Changai branches out at the further termination of the great Altai, paſſing S. E., as already mentioned. The mountains of Malgan proceed in an oppoſite direction on the ſouth of the lake of Upſa, and the river Tez. Between the lake Zaizan and Caſhgar are many rocky hills, the chief ranges ſeem to be thoſe of Chamar Daban and Ajagu, to the ſouth and weſt of that lake; and the ſnowy range of Muſart running E. and W. to the north of Caſhgar, and continued by a ſtill greater chain that of Alak alſo called Terek Daban; and towards the ſouth Belur Tag, or the Cloudy Mountains. This laſt ſeems to repreſent the Imaus of the ancients; while the range of Mus Tag, according to Iſlenieff, runs E. and W. in the 38° of latitude, giving ſource to ſeveral rivers which flow north into that of Irken, or Yarkand. Ptolemy indeed delineates the higheſt part of the Imaus in the ſame direction, and derives from it the ſources of the Indus, and Ganges; which laſt river modern diſcovery deduces from a range 4° more to the ſouth. Iſlenieff himſelf is ſuppoſed to be in a ſimilar error, when he derives the ſources of the Syr and Amu, or Sihon and Jihon, from Belur Tag, or the Cloudy Mountains, omitting a parallel range about two degrees more to the weſt; yet the ſpace between theſe two ſuppoſed ranges ſeems idly filled up by what is called the plain of Pamer; and perhaps the Ruſſian geography is preferable. According to Iſlenieff, whoſe plain map may be preferred to any ſcientific theories, the range of Argjun, or Argun, and Karatau runs N. W. and S. E. between the Sihon and the Talas; while that of Aktau runs S. W. on the ſouth of the Syr, or Sihon.*

The great rivers of Onon and Argoon, with others that flow in an oppoſite direction into the Selinga, riſe from the high ridge of Sochondo,

* The Allakoola of Mr. Tooke is laid down by Iſlenieff as the eaſtern part of the Muſart range, on the north of Little Bucharia. But the Muſart of Pallas muſt paſs in a different direction.

Mountains. chondo, the ſummits of which conſiſt of large rocks heaped on each other in ſucceſſive terraces. There are two vaſt cavities, or abyſſes, with perpendicular ſides, and ſmall lakes at the bottom, which receive the melting ſnows, and give ſource to torrents which precipitate themſelves with a terrible noiſe amidſt the disjointed rocks. This ridge is clothed with perpetual ſnow; and, after dividing the rivers of Ruſſian Daouria from thoſe that flow into the Baikal, paſſes S. W. and joins an icy chain which runs into Mongolia.*

There are ſome foreſts near the rivers: but in general the extreme elevation and ſandy ſoil of central Aſia render trees as rare as in the deſarts of Africa.

Botany. Of the botany of the whole central part of Aſia, including the vaſt territories of Chineſe Tatary, and Tibet, we are as yet in a manner totally ignorant. No European naturaliſt has ever even paſſed through,

Some little additional information may be collected from the fourth volume of Du Halde. He obſerves, p. 23, that the river of Kalka, whence the name of the Kalkas, riſes in a famous mountain called Suelki, or Siolki. This name may therefore be applied to the ridge which divides the Kalkas from Chineſe Daouria. The river Songari, p. 92, riſes in the mountain Champé, (Chan ſignifies a mountain,) famous as the original border of the Mandſhurs, and ſaid to be always covered with ſnow, whence its name which ſignifies the white mountain. This appellation may be applied to the ridge which runs north from Corea, on the eaſt of the river Songari. The river Onon, (a name, p. 514, of the Sagalian till joined by the Argoon) riſes from the mountains of Kentey, which alſo give ſource to the Tula and the Kerlon: p. 522, 523. The Kentey is therefore another name for the mountains of Kinhan, or perhaps more ſtrictly thoſe of Sochondo: and he alſo mentions thoſe of Altay, and thoſe of Trangha, and Cocoy. His Hangai, to the S. E. of Altay, is the Changai of Pallas, and probably the Trangha is the ſame name diſfigured by an error of the preſs. The Cocoy he ſays is a low chain between the Altay and the Hangai, but this geography is unſatisfactory. He adds that the river Hopto runs along the chain of Cocoy, and falls into the lake of Ekaral, to the weſt of Hangai, while the lake of Kirkil is to the eaſt of Hangai, and receives two rivers which flow from that mountain. See D'Anville's map of Aſia: but that geographer's radical miſconception of the width, and extent of mountainous chains diſfigures all his maps. That of Iſlenieff greatly differs: but the Cocoy ſeems the Bogdo. In the jeſuitic maps the lake Upſa ſtands due N. from Ekaral, while it is *ſix degrees* to the eaſt: and the Upper Irtiſh runs N. inſtead of W.

Mr. Bell, i. 427, 8vo. obſerved a chain of mountains in the N.W. of China, about fifteen miles in breadth, in length above one thouſand miles, running N. and S., and encompaſſing the greater part of China to the N. and W. Where he croſſed the ſandy deſart, p. 405, it was twenty miles broad; but in ſome places is thirty leagues. This ſandy deſart ſhould be laid down in the maps like thoſe of Africa.

* Dec. Ruſſes, vi. 248—254, where the laſt is termed the Gungurtian and Manſtricanian mountains. The original German muſt be obſcure, for the French tranſlation, and Mr. Tooke's extracts, ſometimes preſent an unintelligible phraſeology. The Gungur muſt be the Hongur of D'Anville.

much

much leſs explored the vegetable products of theſe extenſive regions. Botany. From their elevated ſituation, and their rigorous winters, it is obvious that no tropical plants, nor even thoſe of the more temperate Aſiatic countries are to be expected in their flora; and by the vague accounts of a few travellers combined with the little that we know of the ſea coaſt of Tatary, it would appear that at leaſt the commoneſt plants are for the moſt part the ſame as thoſe of the north of Germany, mingled with a few Siberian ſpecies. Hence it ſeems that the territorial limits of the Indian, and Siberian floras are ſeparated from each other by a broad band of European vegetables, which, entering Aſia by the Uralian mountains, proceeds in a ſouth eaſt direction as far as the Tatarian borders, whence it ſtretches due eaſt quite acroſs the continent, to the river Amur, and the coaſt of Mandſhur Tatary. The ſouthern frontier of Tibet as it partakes of the climate of India, ſo it reſembles this laſt in ſome of its vegetable productions, and for the ſame reaſon there are many common features in the floras of Siberia, and the north of Tatary. It is probable alſo that peculiar ſpecies, or even genera may hereafter be found in ſuch an extenſive tract. The only indigenous plants that we are as yet certainly acquainted with, except what belong to Siberia, or India, are that well-known, and ſingular fern the Polypodium barometz, called alſo the *Scythian lamb:* panax quinquefolium, *ginſeng*, the favourite drug of China; and rheum palmatum, which at leaſt is one of the plants that furniſhes the true *rhubarb*.

The zoology of this wide portion of the globe would ſupply an infinite Zoology. theme, in which the camel of the deſart might appear with the rock goat of the Alps, and the tiger with the ermine. The wild horſe, and the wild aſs, and a peculiar ſpecies of cattle which grunt like ſwine, are among the moſt remarkable ſingularities. The wild horſe is generally of a mouſe colour, and ſmall, with long ſharp ears.

The mineralogy of central Aſia has been little explored. Gold is Mineralogy. found both in the eaſtern and weſtern regions, and the former are alſo ſaid to produce tin. As Ruſſian Daouria exhibits ſo many valuable ſubſtances, it is reaſonable to conclude that they equally abound in the

Mineralogy. Chineſe territory, if ſimilar ſkill and induſtry were exerted in their detection. The mineral waters, and uncommon appearances of nature, have been little inveſtigated.

ISLAND OF SAGALIAN, OR TCHOKA.

Till this large iſland was explored by the unfortunate navigator La Perouſe, it was ſuppoſed to be only a ſmall iſle at the mouth of the Amur, the ſouthern extremity being placed by D'Anville about 4°, or 240 geographical miles, to the north of Jeſſo. By the account and maps of La Perouſe, which have ſince been followed, it is only divided from Jeſſo by a narrow ſtrait of about 20 miles in breadth, ſince called the ſtrait of Perouſe. The diſcovery and account of this large iſland, which extends from the 46th° of latitude to the 54th°, or not leſs than 480 geographical miles in length, by about 80 of medial breadth, is the moſt important portion of that navigator's voyage. The natives ſeem to approach to the Tataric form; and the upper lip is commonly tatooed blue. Dreſs, a looſe robe of ſkins, or quilted nankeen, with a girdle. Their huts, or cabins, of timber, thatched with graſs, with a fire place in the centre. In the ſouth are found Japaneſe articles. A little trade ſeems alſo known with the Mandſhurs, and the Ruſſians. The native name of this large iſland is Tchoka, that uſed by the Japaneſe Oku Jeſſo, perhaps implying further Jeſſo; while the Ruſſians, who only know the northern part, call it the iſle of Sagalian, becauſe it is oppoſite to the large river of that name. The centre is mountainous, and well wooded with pine, willow, oak, and birch; but the ſhores are level, and ſingularly adapted to agriculture. The people are highly praiſed by La Perouſe as a mild and intelligent race. The portraits which he gives of three old men, with long beards, rather reſemble

the European than the Tataric lineaments: and La Perouſe expreſsly informs us that they are quite unlike the Mandſhurs, or Chineſe. He obſerves as a ſingularity that their words for *ſhip*, *two*, and *three* are nearly the ſame with the Engliſh; and for this he refers to the vocabulary, in which however ſhip is *kahani:* two is indeed *tou*, but three is *tche*. The iſland of Jeſſo, and ſome others to the north of Japan, will be deſcribed in the account of that intereſting country. Isles

CHINESE EMPIRE.

PART III.

TIBET.

Names.—Extent.—Boundaries and Provinces.—Progreſſive Geography.—Religion.—Government.—Population.—Manners.—Language and Literature.—Cities and Towns.—Manufactures and Commerce.—Climate and Soil.—Rivers.—Mountains.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Natural Curioſities.

THE account of this intereſting country muſt unfortunately be limited in the topics, as the materials are far from being ample. The recent narrative of Capt. Turner's journey ſhall be ſelected as the moſt authentic; but it only embraces a ſmall part, and for the general geography recourſe muſt be had to more antiquated authorities.* Tibet, with its numerous independencies, may in fact ſtill be arranged among the *undiſcovered* countries in the centre of Aſia.

NAMES. The name of *Tibet*, which is probably Hindoo, or Perſian, is in the country itſelf, and in Bengal pronounced *Tibbet*, or *Tibt.* But the native appellation is *Puë*, or *Puë Koachim*, ſaid to be derived from *Puë*, ſignifying northern, and *Koachim*, ſnow; that is the ſnowy region of the north.[1]

Extent. According to the moſt recent maps Tibet extends from about the 75th to the 101ſt degree of longitude, which in the latitude of 30° may

* For an account of Nipal ſee Hindoſtan: and the authors there mentioned may be conſulted for a further account of Tibet.

[1] Turner, p. v. and 305.

be

be about 1350 geographical miles. The breadth may be regarded as extending from the 27th to the 35th degree of latitude, or about 480 geographical miles.* The original population has not been accurately examined, but as the people of Bootan, which is regarded as a ſouthern province of Tibet, are ſaid to differ eſſentially and radically from the Hindoos, and ſomewhat to reſemble the Chineſe; it may perhaps be concluded that they belong to that grand race of men, which approaches the Tataric, though they cannot be regarded as Mandſhurs, Monguls, or Tatars proper. EXTENT.

As Mr. Forſter in his travels obſerves that the material for the ſhawls of Caſhmir is "brought from diſtricts of Tibet, lying at the diſtance of a month's journey to the north eaſt:[2]" and as Tieffenthaler, in his account of Caſhmir, ſpecially mentions that Great Tibet is to the north eaſt of that country, and Little Tibet to the N. W.,[3] there is every reaſon to infer that our maps are wholly defective in fixing the northern boundary of this country, which ought to be extended to the ſources of the rivers of Little Bucharia, between the 37th and 38th degree of N. latitude. Tieffenthaler[4] alſo mentions that the neareſt route to Caſhgar would be through Great Tibet, but, this not being permitted, the paſſage is through Little Tibet, the capital of which, Aſcardu, is eight days journey from the N. limit of Caſhmir. Further on is Schakar: and after travelling thence for fifteen days, through thick foreſts, appears the frontier of Little Tibet. In other fifteen days the caravan reaches Caſhgar, formerly the reſidence of the prince; but it is now at Yarkand, ten days further to the *north* † Boundaries and Provinces.

Theſe clear teſtimonies of two intelligent travellers ſeem to evince that the northern boundary of Tibet may be ſafely extended two degrees further than it appears in our beſt maps, in which there is no portion of

* Probably at leaſt to 37°, which would add 120 G. miles: for Mus Tag is, according to the Ruſſians, the northern boundary of Tibet: and they place that range in 38°.

[2] Vol. ii. p. 18. [3] Bernoulli, Tome i. p. 77. [4] p. 84.

† This laſt intelligence is new, but as all our maps place Yarkand to the ſouth, the ſole teſtimony of Tieffenthaler cannot be followed. He adds that from Caſhgar to Cathay, or the N. W. of China, the caravans occupy two months, a ſpace which agrees with the poſitions. As Little Tibet is to the N. of Caſhmir, and is bounded on the E. by Great Tibet, (Bernier) it is clear that the latter muſt extend further N. than our maps bear.

Great.

Boundaries and Provinces.

Great Tibet to the N. E. of Caſhmir. It would ſeem that the Chineſe Lamas, in their great haſte to eſcape from the Eluts, who attacked Laſſa,[5] were contented with bare reports, not only concerning the ſources of the Ganges, but the whole weſtern provinces of Tibet. From their rude drawings D'Anville placed the northern limit of this country, (as well as of Caſhmir) in lat. 34°, and when Major Rennell judiciouſly, but cautiouſly, moved it one degree further to the north, he might ſafely have extended it at leaſt three degrees. The ſource of the Ganges ſtood in the Chineſe map lat. 29°. 30′: D'Anville found it indiſpenſible to raiſe it to 32°, and Rennell to 33°. 15′.[6] Hence it appears that one radical defect, in that very imperfect and erroneous map, was the great diminution of the latitude. To fill up this deficiency geographers have here introduced the great Sandy Deſert of Cobi; which, as appears from Marco Polo, and other travellers, is in the centre of Aſia, correſponding in latitude with that of Shamo, on the N. of China, beginning near Yarkand, but ſpreading into a far wider expanſe at the city of Lop, further to the E.[7]

The extracts from Giorgi, and others, concerning Tibet, in Bernoulli's third volume, bear that it is divided into three parts, Upper, Middle, and Lower. Upper Tibet chiefly compriſes the province of Nagari, full of horrible rocks, and mountains covered with eternal ſnow. Middle Tibet contains the provinces of Shang, Ou, and Kiang: while the provinces of Lower Tibet are Takbo, Congbo, and Kahang.

In this diviſion the countries of Lata, or Ladak, (Latac)* and Breguiong, or Bramaſcion, (perhaps Sirinagur, which abounds with Bramins,) mentioned in another here given, being omitted, it is probable that they conſtitute, with Nagari, what is called Upper Tibet.

[5] Du Halde, iv. 577. [6] Rennell, 310.

[7] Paul. Venet. Cap. 43, 44. edit. Muller, 1671, 4to.

* By Deſideri's account Lett. Edif. xv. and Aſtley, iv. 453, Latac forms a kind of detached ſovereignty. The town is ſeven miles N. of the river Lachu, which falls into the Ganges (rather the Indus, for *Ganga* only means the river). Chaparong ſtands 80 miles S. E. probably on another river which joins the Indus. If Latac, or Chaparong ſtood near the Ganges they would be well known to the Hindoo pilgrims, which is not the caſe.

Many

Many of theſe provinces are again ſubdivided: for inſtance Nagari, which is conſidered as a kingdom of three departments, Sangkar, Pourang, and Tamo (Dam, or Daum?). Shang is on the W. bounded by Nipal. The province of Ou contains Laſſa, the capital of Tibet. Kiang is to the north (N. E.) of Ou; and is inhabited by mingled Tibetans and Monguls in tents. Kahang is in the S. E. bordering on the Birmans, and is divided into twelve departments.* BOUNDARIES AND PROVINCES.

To theſe muſt be added the wide region of Amdoa, if it be not the ſame with Kahang, but it ſeems more probably to embrace the confines towards China, as the natives are remarkably ingenious, and ſpeak the Chineſe language. The country of Hor is ſituated betwixt Tatary and the provinces of Nagari and Kiang, and ſeems to be the Hohonor of our maps. In tracing theſe numerous provinces the map of the Lamas will be found entirely uſeleſs. Our Bootan is by the natives ſtyled Decpo, or Takbo: all the countries to the weſt of which, as Moringa, or Morung, Mocampour, Nipal, Gorca, and Kemaoon, (for Almora is only a city,) are not conſidered as parts of Tibet. The confuſion of Chineſe, Mongul, and Tibetan appellations has been a great impediment in the geography of this extenſive country; the N. E. part of which was, with the Chineſe province of Shenſi, before the great wall was extended in this quarter, the celebrated Tangut of oriental hiſtory and geography.† On the weſtern ſide high mountains, covered with perpetual ſnow, and with all the terrible avalanches, and other features of the Swiſs Alps, have in all ages prevented the Perſians, and the conquerors of Bucharia from invading this country; while the deſerts in the N. E. have proved ineffectual barriers againſt the Monguls and Eluts. Theſe almoſt inacceſſible weſtern mountains have alſo prevented travellers from penetrating in that quarter, which is little better known at preſent than in the time of Ptolemy.

* Penna informs us that the ſecular princes had maps of the country, and it is to be regretted that our envoy did not requeſt one from the Lama.

† In the German work called New Memoirs of the North, of which Pallas publiſhed four volumes 8vo. 1783, there is vol. i. an account of Tibet from the reports of the Lamas to Muller and Pallas. In vol. iv. Hackmann has abſtracted all the intelligence concerning this country.

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

The progreſſive geography of Tibet chiefly dates from a recent period; for though Ptolemy's knowledge extended to the golden Cherſonneſe, or Pegu, and the weſtern ſhores of the Siameſe monarchy, yet as his Seres, or the furtheſt inland people known to him in this quarter, were ſituated in Little Bucharia, there is no room to believe that the ſnowy mountains of Tibet had been penetrated by the ancients. The Portugueſe commerce, with the Eaſt Indies, may be ſaid to have firſt diſcloſed this ample region, of which however our knowledge, even at this day, is lamentably defective. Yet Tibet ſeems to have been the ſouthern part of the Tangut of Marco Polo,[8] and other travellers. Polo indeed ſpecially deſcribes the province of *Tebeth*, (which he ſays contained eight kingdoms, with many cities and villages,) as a mountainous country, producing ſome gold and ſpices, a large breed of dogs, and excellent falcons.

About 1715 the emperor of China being deſirous to obtain a map of Tibet, two Lamas were ſent who had ſtudied geometry in a mathematical academy.[9] Theſe lamas drew a map from Sining, in the province of Shenſi, to the ſources of the Ganges; which was afterwards examined by the Jeſuits, and improved by them, ſo far as their materials would admit. This map, publiſhed in the Atlas of Du Halde's work, unfortunately continues almoſt the ſole authority, and is followed, with a few variations, by the moſt recent geographers. It ſeems but of doubtful credit, eſpecially in the weſtern parts, where the ſource of the Ganges is confeſſedly only from the report of ſome Tibetan Lamas;[10] whence it is no wonder that recent accounts ſeem to evince it to be erroneous, nor is it certain whether the adjacent parts have Lamas or Bramins. In the ſouth the Chineſe Lamas certainly never paſſed the ridge of Himmala; whence Nipal, Bootan, and other countries are omitted; and even the names in general appear rather to be arbitrary Chineſe terms than real appellatives of places, ſo that in fact we may be ſaid to poſſeſs no map of Tibet in this the nineteenth century. Other moſt ſuſpicious circumſtances in the pretended Chineſe Atlas of Tibet are, that there are no diſtinct names of ſmall kingdoms,

[8] Cap. xxxvi. edit. 1537. [9] Du Halde, iv. 571. [10] Ib. 577.

ſtates,

ſtates, or provinces, though from recent accounts theſe ſeem particularly to abound in the country; and that the great river Gogra is totally unknown and omitted. Progreſſive Geography.

The geography of Aſia cannot be ſaid to be complete till we have new and correct maps of the central parts, particularly of Tibet, which may be called the heart of Aſia, whence the ſtreams of life flow into the vaſt ſouthern regions of that extenſive country. The ſources of the Ganges and Indus, the Sanpoo, and all the prodigious and fertile ſtreams of exterior India, and of China, belong to this intereſting region; and muſt be exactly traced and delineated before we can have preciſe and ſcientific ideas of Aſiatic geography.

The Lama of Tibet was the Preſter John of the middle ages, if he were not ſome neſtorian Chan:[11] and this ſtrange appellation was as ſtrangely transferred by Portugueſe ignorance to the emperor of Abyſſinia. Polo alſo informs us that Tibet had been ravaged by the Monguls, ſo that in his time it was almoſt deſolate. The quiet ſucceſſion of the lamas would afford few materials for hiſtory; and the petty ſecular chiefs* of diſtinct provinces or kingdoms may perhaps ſometimes be traced in the Chineſe or Hindoo annals, but would little intereſt an European reader. As the tombs and monaſteries are often conſtructed of ſtone, ſome may remain of remote antiquity. But the idols, cut in the rocks, are little calculated to impreſs travellers with the idea of much perfection in the arts. Hiſtory.

The religion of Tibet ſeems to be the ſchiſmatical offspring of that of the Hindoos,[12] "deriving its origin from one of the followers of that faith, a diſciple of Budh, who firſt broached the doctrine which now Religion.

[11] Gibbon, viii. 344.

* Yet Tibet was for ſome time ſubject to ſecular kings, called Tſan Pa; and the lama reſided at Laſſa with a power ſimilar to that of the ſpiritual prince of Japan. Thoſe Monguls called Eluts conquered the ſecular prince, and transferred the whole power to the lama. (Du Halde, iv. 50.) See alſo, in the ſame author, iv. 570, an account of the diſputes which aroſe between the ancient, or red lamas, and the yellow, who, by the influence of China, obtained the aſcendancy. In 1792 the Nipaleſe having committed great ravages in Tibet, the emperor of China ſent an army to protect the lama; in conſequence of which the Chineſe have eſtabliſhed military poſts on the frontiers, ſo that the intercourſe between their country and Bengal is now precluded. Turner, 441.

[12] Turner, p. 306.

Religion. prevails over the wide extent of Tatary. It is reported to have received its earlieſt admiſſion in that part of Tibet bordering upon India, (which from hence became the ſeat of the ſovereign lamas;) to have traverſed over Mantchieux Tatary, and to have been ultimately diſſeminated over China and Japan. Though it differs from the Hindoo in many of its outward forms, yet it ſtill bears a very cloſe affinity with the religion of Brahma, in many important particulars. The principal idol in the temples of Tibet is Mahamoonie,* the Budha of Bengal, who is worſhipped under theſe and various other epithets, throughout the great extent of Tatary, and among all the nations to the eaſtward of the Berhampooter. In the wide extended ſpace, over which this faith prevails, the ſame object of veneration is acknowledged under numerous titles; among others he is ſtyled Godama, or Gowtama, in Aſſam and Ava; Samana in Siam; Amida Buth in Japan; Fohi in China; Budha, and Shakamuna in Bengal, and Hindoſtan; Dherma Raja, and Mahamoonie in Bootan, and Tibet. Durga and Kali; Ganeiſh the emblem of wiſdom; and Gartikeäh with his numerous heads and arms, as well as many other deities of the Hindoo mythology, have alſo a place in their aſſemblage of gods.

" The ſame places of popular eſteem, or religious reſort, as I have already hinted, are equally reſpected in Tibet and in Bengal; Praag, Caſhi, Durgeedin, Saugor, and Jagarnaut, are objects of devout pilgrimage; and I have ſeen loads of the ſacred water taken from the Ganges travelling over theſe mountains, (which by the bye contribute largely to its increaſe,) upon the ſhoulders of men whom enthuſiaſts have deemed it worth their while to hire at a conſiderable expence for ſo pious a purpoſe.

" As far as I am able to judge reſpecting their ritual, or ceremonial worſhip, it differs materially from the Hindoo. The Tibetians aſſemble in chapels, and unite together in prodigious numbers to perform their religious ſervice, which they chant in alternate recitative, and chorus, accompanied by an extenſive band of loud and powerful inſtruments. So that whenever I heard theſe congregations they forcibly recalled to

* " This term is Sanſcrit, and literally ſignifies Great Saint."

my recollection both the ſolemnity and ſound of the Roman Catholic maſs." RELIGION.

Perhaps this ſimilarity may ariſe from the neſtorian form of Chriſtianity, ſuppoſed to have anciently made ſome progreſs in this country. There are numerous monaſteries containing crowds of *gylongs*, or monks, with a few *annees*, or nuns.

The ruling government is the ſpiritual, though the lama were accuſtomed to appoint a *tipa*, or ſecular regent, a right which has probably paſſed to the Chineſe emperor. In Bootan, generally conſidered as a province of Tibet, there is a raja, or prince, called Daeb, whoſe authority however is far from being firm, or extenſive. The laws muſt, like the religion, bear ſome affinity to that of the Hindoos. GOVERNMENT.

No eſtimate of the population of Tibet ſeems to have been attempted, but as the country may be ſaid to be wholly mountainous, and the climate exceſſively cold, even under the 27th degree of latitude, (the influence of mountains being far ſuperior to that of imaginary zones,) the people are thinly ſcattered, and the number of males far exceeds that of females. From the eaſe with which the conqueſt was effected by the Eluts, and other circumſtances, it can ſcarcely be conceived that a monarch of all Tibet could have brought into the field an army of more than 50,000; and allowing that (excluſive of the numerous monks) only every tenth perſon aſſumed arms, the population would be half a million, a circumſtance which will not ſurprize thoſe who conſider that a few families in central Aſia aſſume the name of a nation. But this number is probably far too ſmall; and it can only be ſaid that the population ſeems ſcanty. The ancient nomadic crowds are now reduced to a ſmall number, from the extenſive bands who followed their victorious chiefs having ſettled in more civilized countries, and from the natural progreſs of human affairs, which leads mankind to exchange a ſevere climate, and barren ſoil, for more fertile, and favoured regions. From theſe and other cauſes the population of a country may become exhauſted, as well as its vegetation. Even the numerous armies of the Hunniſh and Mongul victors were chiefly ſupplied with recruits from more ſouthern countries, previouſly vanquiſhed: the miſeries of war being the greateſt ſource of ſoldiers. POPULATION.

The

Revenues. The revenues of the lama, and of the ſecular princes, ſeem to be trifling; nor can Tibet ever aſpire to any political importance, except in the improbable caſe that a ſuppoſed emperor of Hindoſtan were carrying on war againſt China. In a commercial point of view, friendſhip and free intercourſe with Tibet might open new advantages to our ſettlements in Bengal; and in this deſign repeated envoys to the lama were ſent by Mr. Haſtings, a governor who poſſeſſed the moſt enlarged and enlightened mind, and an active attention to the intereſts of his country.

Character. Mr. Turner repreſents the character of the Tibetians as extremely gentle and amiable. The men are generally ſtout, with ſomething of the Tataric features, and the women of a ruddy brown complexion, heightened like the fruits by the proximity of the ſun, while the mountain breezes beſtow health and vigour.

Marriage Ceremonies. "The ceremonies of marriage are neither tedious nor intricate in Tibet."[13] Their courtſhips are carried on with little art, and quickly brought to a concluſion. The elder brother of a family, to whom the choice belongs, when enamoured of a damſel makes his propoſal to the parents. If his ſuit is approved, and the offer accepted, the parents, with their daughter, repair to the ſuitor's houſe, where the male and female acquaintance of both parties meet, and carouſe for the ſpace of three days, with muſic, dancing, and every kind of feſtivity. At the expiration of this time the marriage is complete. The prieſts of Tibet, who ſhun the ſociety of women, have no ſhare in theſe ceremonies, or in ratifying the obligation between the parties. Mutual conſent is their only bond of union; and the parties preſent are witneſſes to the contract, which, it ſeems, is formed indiſſolubly for life. The huſband has it not in his power to rid himſelf of a troubleſome companion, nor the wife to withdraw herſelf from the huſband, unleſs indeed the ſame uniſon of ſentiment that joined their hands ſhould prompt their ſeparation; but in ſuch a caſe they are never left at liberty to form a new alliance. Inſtances of incontinency are rare, but if a married female be found to violate her compact the crime is expiated by corporal puniſhment, and the favoured lover effaces the obloquy of his tranſgreſſion by a pecuniary fine."

[13] Turner, 352.

It is a remarkable characteriſtic of the country that polygamy here aſ- Marriage Ceremonies.
ſumes a different form from that of other oriental regions; the women being indulged in a plurality of huſbands, inſtead of the reverſe. It is the privilege of the elder brother to ſelect a wife, who ſtands in an equal relation to his other brothers, whatever may be the number.[14] The ſame cuſtom is ſaid to have been clandeſtinely practiſed at Venice, from views of family pride, united with poverty; but in Tibet it is reported to be founded in the great paucity of females, when compared with the number of males, though a vaſt quantity of the latter be buried in the monaſteries.

Such is the reſpect paid to the lama, that his body is preſerved entire Burials.
in a ſhrine; while thoſe of the inferior prieſts are burnt, and their aſhes preſerved in little hollow images of metal. But in general the dead bodies are expoſed to the beaſts, and birds of prey, in walled areas; and an annual feſtival is held, as in Bengal and China, in honour of the dead.

A curious idea of the manners and cuſtoms of the Tibetians may be formed from Mr. Turner's account of his interview with the lama, then an infant not capable of ſpeech; for, in the ſpirit of the eaſtern metempſycoſis, they ſuppoſe that the ſoul of the lama paſſes from his late body into another, which they diſcover by infallible marks.

Upon the whole, the Tibetians appear to have made a conſiderable progreſs in civilization; but the ſciences continue in a ſtate of imperfection, the year for inſtance being lunar, and the month conſiſting of 29 days.

The language of Tibet is reported by Du Halde to be the ſame with Language.
that ſpoken by the people of Sifan, on the weſtern frontiers of China; but as this province is itſelf ſometimes included in Tibet, the information becomes vague; nor have the origins of the Tibetian ſpeech been properly inveſtigated. The literature is chiefly of the religious kind, the books being ſometimes printed with blocks of wood, on narrow ſlips of thin paper, fabricated from the fibrous root of a ſmall ſhrub. In this practice they reſemble the Chineſe; while the Hindoos engrave their works with a ſteel ſtylus upon the recent leaves of the palmira

[14] Du Halde and Turner.

tree,

Language. tree, (boraſſus flabelliformis,) affording a fibrous ſubſtance, which ſeems indeſtructible by vermin.[15] The printed and formal letters are called the *uchen;* while thoſe of buſineſs and correſpondence are ſtyled *umin.* From Mr. Turner's account it would ſeem that the writing runs from the left to the right, as in the languages of Europe.

The gylongs, or monks, paſs through a regular education; and it is to be ſuppoſed ſometimes teach children not deſtined to religious confinement.

Cities and Towns. Of the cities and towns of Tibet little is known. The capital is Laſſa: and ſeveral other names in the ſouthern part aſſume the character of towns in the maps, though probably mere villages. Taſſiſudon, for inſtance, only conſiſts of ſcattered groups of hovels. There being little commerce, there is no middle claſs of people, but the tranſition is rapid from the miſerable hut to the ſtone palace or monaſtery.

Laſſa. Laſſa, the capital of Tibet, is ſituated in a ſpacious plain, being a ſmall city, but the houſes are of ſtone, and are ſpacious and lofty.[16] The noted mountain of Putala, on which ſtands the palace of the Lama, is about ſeven miles to the eaſt of the city. As *La* means a hill in the native tongue, this name may imply the hill of Pouta or Boodh. To the north of Laſſa appears another vaſt range of mountains, covered with ſnow, which are clearly ſeen from Kambala, a very high mountain on the north of the lake of Iandro or Palti. Laſſa is in the province of Ou, and almoſt in the centre of Tibet.[17]

Edifices. Among the edifices the monaſteries may be firſt mentioned. Mr. Turner deſcribes that of Teſhoo Loomboo, as containing three or four hundred houſes, inhabited by monks, beſides temples, mauſoleums, and the palace of the ſovereign pontiff. The buildings are all of ſtone, none leſs than two ſtories in height, with flat roofs, and parapets compoſed of heath and bruſhwood, probably to emit the melting ſnow. The centre window projects beyond the wall, and forms a balcony. Some of the palaces and fortreſſes are deſcribed and delineated by Mr. Turner; and the architecture ſeems reſpectable. Bridges occur of various fantaſtic forms; ſometimes conſiſting of chains, drawn from precipice to preci-

[15] Turner, 323. [16] Rennell, 306. [17] Bernoulli, iii. 227.

pice;

pice; ſometimes of beams, one end being fixed in the ſhore, while the other ſucceſſively increaſes its projection till the uppermoſt timbers ſupport a ſhort paſſage of planks, thus reſembling the upper ſection of an octagon. The roads amidſt the rocky mountains reſemble thoſe of Swiſſerland, and are particularly dangerous after rain. Edifices.

The chief manufactures of Tibet ſeem to be ſhawls, and ſome woollen cloths; but there is a general want of induſtry; and the fine undermoſt hair of the goats, from which ſhawls are manufactured, is chiefly ſent to Caſhmir. The principal exports are to China, conſiſting of gold duſt, diamonds, pearls, coral, (which is mentioned by Marco Polo as a commodity of the country[18]) lamb ſkins, ſome muſk, and woollen cloths. Many of the Chineſe imports are manufactured. To Nipal, Tibet ſends rock ſalt, tincal or crude borax, and gold duſt; receiving in return baſe ſilver coin, copper, rice, and coarſe cotton cloths. Through Nipal is alſo carried on the chief trade with Bengal, in gold duſt, tincal, and muſk. The returns broad cloth, ſpices, trinkets, emeralds, ſapphires, pheiroſa or lazulite, jet, amber, &c. With Aſam in the S. E, there is no intercourſe; and the little trade with Bootan may rather be regarded as internal. Manufactures.

The trade with China, which is the principal, is chiefly conducted at the garriſon town of Sining, in the weſtern extremity of the province of Shenſi, where tea is greedily bought by the Tibetians. There is no mint in Tibet, as ſuch an inſtitution is prevented by religious prejudices; but the baſe ſilver of Nipal is current throughout the country. Trade.

The climate of Bootan may be ſaid to be temperate, when compared with that of Tibet Proper; yet the winters are very ſevere even in the former country. "In the temperature of the ſeaſons in Tibet a remarkable uniformity prevails, as well as in their periodical duration and return. The ſame diviſion of them takes place here as in the more ſouthern region of Bengal. The ſpring is marked, from March to May, by a variable atmoſphere; heat, thunder ſtorms, and occaſionally with refreſhing ſhowers. From June to September is the ſeaſon of humidity, when heavy and continued rains fill the rivers to their brim, Climate.

[18] ii. 37. Whence was this coral? It was uſed as money. Can it have been from the large lakes?

Climate. which run off from hence with rapidity to aſſiſt in inundating Bengal. From October to March a clear and uniform ſky ſucceeds, ſeldom obſcured either by fogs or clouds. For three months of this ſeaſon a degree of cold is felt, far greater perhaps than is known to prevail in Europe. Its extreme ſeverity is more particularly confined to the ſouthern boundary of Tibet, near that elevated range of mountains which divides it from Aſam, Bootan, and Nipal."[19]

Thus the diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of the climate is that extreme dry and parching cold, which, under the latitude of 26°, near the torrid zone of antiquated geography, rivals that of the Alps in latitude 46°.

Face of the Country. From the ſame intelligent traveller we learn that Bootan, with all its confuſed and ſhapeleſs mountains, is covered with eternal verdure, and abounds in foreſts of large and lofty trees.[20] The ſides of the mountains are improved by the hand of induſtry, and crowned with orchards, fields, and villages. Tibet Proper, on the contrary, exhibits only low rocky hills, without any viſible vegetation, or extenſive arid plains of an aſpect equally ſtern; while the bleak and cold climate conſtrains the inhabitants to ſeek refuge in ſheltered vales and hollows, or amidſt the warmeſt aſpects of the rocks. Yet Tibet produces great abundance and variety of wild fowl and game; with numerous flocks of ſheep and goats, and herds of cattle, and is infeſted by many beaſts of prey: while in Bootan few wild animals are found except monkeys, and a few pheaſants. Tibet Proper muſt indeed be conſidered as a mineral country, the mountains preſenting a peculiarly naked aſpect, which indicates that they contain rich ores, for the fumes of large maſſes of metal are poiſonous to vegetation.

Soil. The nature of the ſoil here prohibits the progreſs of agriculture. The vales are commonly laid under water on the approach of winter: in the ſpring they are plowed and ſown, while frequent ſhowers, and a powerful ſun, contribute ſpeedily to mature the crops.[21] The autumn being clear and tranquil, the harveſt is long left to dry on the ground; and when ſufficiently hardened is trod out by cattle. The courſe of cultivation is wheat, peas, and barley; rice being confined to a more ſouthern ſoil.

[19] Turner, 300. [20] P. 216. [21] Turner, 354.

The chief river of Tibet is, beyond all compariſon, the Sampoo or Berhanpootar, which riſing in the weſtern region, from the ſame lofty mountains that give ſource to the Ganges, proceeds in an E. and S. E. direction for about the ſpace of 1000 Engliſh miles, to the confines of Tibet and Aſam, where it bends S. W., and flows into the eſtuary of the Ganges, after a further courſe of about 400 Britiſh miles. Rivers.

The Hoan Ho and Kian Ku of the Chineſe alſo derive their origin from the eaſtern boundaries of Tibet. Of the other rivers little is known; but the great Japaneſe river of Cambodia, or Maykaung of Laos; that of Nou Kia, ſuppoſed to paſs near Martaban into the gulph of Pegu; and the Irrawady of this laſt country, are all ſuppoſed to derive their ſources from the mountains of Tibet, which may be ſtyled the Alps of Aſia. Nor muſt it be forgotten that another large river, called the Sardjoo or Gagra, which after a courſe of about 600 miles, nearly parallel on the E. with that of the Ganges, joins it near Chupra, alſo derives its ſpring from the lofty weſtern mountains of Tibet.

Theſe Alpine regions contain, as uſual, many lakes, the moſt conſiderable being repreſented under the name of Terkiri, about 80 Britiſh miles in length, and 25 broad. The Chineſe lamas, who drew up the map of Tibet, which geographers ſtill copy in the want of ſuperior authorities, have alſo depicted many other lakes in the northern parts of the country; where there certainly exiſts one very ſingular, which yields the tincal or crude borax. Equally uncommon is the lake to the S. of Laſſa, which our maps call Jamdro or Paltè, the laſt appellation probably from Peiti, a village which the original atlas of Du Halde places on its margin. This ſtrange lake is repreſented as a wide trench, of about two leagues broad, every where ſurrounding an iſland of about twelve leagues in diameter; if true, a ſingular feature of nature. Even the ſmaller lakes in the ſouth of Tibet Proper are in the winter frozen to a great depth. Lakes.

The vaſt ranges of Tibetian mountains have already been repeatedly mentioned; but there is no accurate geographical delineation of their courſe and extent. Thoſe in the weſt and ſouth ſeem to bend in the form of a creſcent, from the ſources of the Ganges to the frontiers of Aſam, in a N. W. and S. E. direction. To the north of Sampoo a Mountains.

Mountains. parallel and yet higher ridge ſeems to extend, the northern extremities abounding with large frozen lakes. In Du Halde's atlas, which was drawn up by the able D'Anville, the mountains which give ſource to the Ganges are called thoſe of Kentaiſſe, and ſeem to belong to the northern chain known by many local names; but the chief elevation appears as uſual to be central, to the ſouth of the lake Terkiri, being called Koiran, an appellation which might therefore be ſcientifically extended to the whole chain, if that of Kantel (the weſtern part) be rejected. The ſouthern range alſo preſents many names of diſtinct mountains, but the Hindoo name of Himmala is preferable.*

From theſe great ranges many branches extend N. and S. as in the Alps, and their names may perhaps be traced, but with little accuracy, in the general map of Tibet, and atlas of the provinces, drawn up by D'Anville from the ſketches of the miſſionaries, and already repeatedly quoted.

Foreſts. Bootan, the ſouthern province of Tibet, abounds with foreſts containing many European trees, though the oak be wanting; and ſeveral peculiar to Aſia. Nipal, the adjoining province to the weſt, probably preſents ſimilar features. The high ſnowy mountains which contain the ſources of the Ganges are perhaps barren of vegetation, a character generally applicable to Tibet Proper.

Zoology. In Bootan few wild animals are obſervable, except monkeys; but Tibet abounds with game of various deſcriptions. The horſes are of a ſmall ſize, or what we term ponies, but ſpirited to a degree of obſtinacy. The cattle are alſo diminutive. The flocks of ſheep are numerous, commonly ſmall, with black heads and legs; the wool ſoft, and the mutton excellent. It is a peculiarity of the country that the latter food is generally eaten raw. When dried in the froſty air it is not diſagreeable, in this ſtate, to an European palate.[22]

The goats are numerous, and celebrated for producing a fine hair, which is manufactured into ſhawls, and which lies beneath the exterior coarſe coat. Nor muſt the ſingular breed of cattle be forgotten, called

* The ſouthern range is the Himaloya (Imaus ?) of Hindoo mythology. The Chumularee near Phari, on the N. frontier of Bootan, is one of the higheſt peaks. Turner, 203.

Du Halde's map of Tibet ſeems to exclude Bootan, and ſeveral provinces on the S. W.

[22] Turner, 302.

Yak

Yak by the Tatars, covered with thick long hair; the tail being peculiarly flowing and gloſſy, and an article of luxury in the eaſt, where it is uſed to drive away the flies, and ſometimes dried for ornaments. Theſe cattle do not low; but, when uneaſy, make a kind of grunting ſound, whence the breed is called the *bos grunniens*. Zoology.

The muſk deer delights in intenſe cold. This valuable animal has two long curved tuſks, proceeding downward from the upper jaw, which ſeem intended to dig roots, his uſual food. The figure of the body ſomewhat reſembles the hog, while the hair approaches the quills of the porcupine. The muſk, which is only found in the male, is formed in a little tumour at the navel; and is the genuine and authentic article ſo ſtyled, being commonly black, and divided by thin cuticles.[21]

The wild horſe is alſo claſſed among the quadrupeds of Tibet. The tiger may perhaps appear in the S. E, but the other beaſts of prey, as the ounce, &c. are of ſmall ſize, as may be expected in ſo cold a climate.

The lakes abound with water fowl in the ſummer, many of which may perhaps be new to zoology; and little is diſcovered concerning the fiſh and inſects of this ſingular country.

The mineralogy is better known from the account appended to Mr. Turner's Journey in 1783, from which it appears that Bootan does not probably contain any metal except iron, and a ſmall portion of copper; while Tibet Proper, on the contrary, ſeems to abound with rich minerals. Gold is found in great quantities, ſometimes in the form of duſt in the beds of rivers, ſometimes in large maſſes, and irregular veins, commonly in a gangart of petroſilex or of quartz. There is a lead mine, two days journey from Teſhoo Lumboo, the ore being galena, probably containing ſilver. Cinnabar, rich in quickſilver, is alſo found; and there are ſtrong indications of copper. Rock ſalt is another product of Tibet. But in general the metals cannot be worked, as there is a complete deficiency of fuel; and coal would be far more precious than gold. Mineralogy.

[21] Turner, 200.

The

Mineralogy.

The moſt peculiar product of Tibet is tincal, or crude borax; concerning which Mr. Saunders, who accompanied Mr. Turner, gives the following intereſting information. "The lake, from whence tincal and rock ſalt are collected, is about fifteen days journey from Teſhoolumboo, and to the northward of it. It is encompaſſed on all ſides by rocky hills, without any brooks or rivulets near at hand; but its waters are ſupplied by ſprings, which being ſaltiſh to the taſte are not uſed by the natives. The tincal is depoſited or formed in the bed of the lake: and thoſe who go to collect it dig it up in large maſſes, which they afterwards break into ſmall pieces, for the convenience of carriage, expoſing it to the air to dry. Although tincal has been collected from this lake for a great length of time, the quantity is not perceptibly diminiſhed; and as the cavities made by digging it ſoon wear out, or fill up, it is an opinion with the people that the formation of freſh tincal is going on. They have never yet met it in dry ground, or high ſituations, but it is found in the ſhalloweſt depths, and the borders of the lake; which deepening gradually from the edges towards the centre, contains too much water to admit of their ſearching for the tincal conveniently; but from the deepeſt parts they bring rock ſalt, which is not to be found in ſhallows, or near the bank. The waters of the lake riſe and fall very little, being ſupplied by a conſtant and unvarying ſource, neither augmented by the influx of any current, nor diminiſhed by any ſtream running from it. The lake, I was aſſured, is at leaſt 20 miles in circumference; and, ſtanding in a very bleak ſituation, is frozen for a great part of the year. The people employed in collecting theſe ſalts are obliged to deſiſt from their labour ſo early as October, on account of the ice. Tincal is uſed in Tibet for ſoldering, and to promote the fuſion of gold and ſilver. Rock ſalt is univerſally uſed for all domeſtic purpoſes in Tibet, Bootan, and Nipal."[24]

Mineral Waters.

There are many mineral waters in various parts of this extenſive country; nor is their ſalutary uſe unknown to the natives.

Natural Curioſities.

The natural curioſities of this alpine region muſt of courſe be numerous, but they have been little explored. Towards the north of Taſſi-

[24] Turner, 406.

ſudon

ſudon Mr. Saunders obſerved a ſingular rock, forming in front ſix or ſeven angular ſemi-pillars of great circumference, and ſome hundred feet in height,[25] This natural curioſity was in part detached from the mountain, and projected over a conſiderable fall of water, which added much to the grand pictureſque appearance of the whole. He adds that the rock is laminated, and might be formed into ſlate; and iron ſtones being found in the vicinity, it is probable that theſe pilaſtres may, like thoſe of baſalt, ariſe from the influence of that metal. NATURAL CURIOSITIES.

Before cloſing this account, it muſt be obſerved that there is a diſtrict to the N. W. of Caſhmir, called Little Tibet, and which is ſuppoſed to contain the chief ſource of the Indus. But of this country, which is alſo repreſented as a portion of the Chineſe empire, little or nothing is known; and even its very ſituation ſeems doubtful, for D'Anville, in his map of Aſia, has placed it to the N. E. of Caſhmir, thus repreſenting it as the N. W. extremity of Tibet Proper. But Little Tibet is probably on the N. and N. W. of Caſhmir, being divided from Great Tibet by a high mountainous ridge; and by a yet higher chain, that of Belur, from great Bucharia. It is ſaid to be a very mountainous and poor country, pervaded by the Indus, and in the north full of foreſts. The capital is Aſcardu; and further to the north is Schakar, as already mentioned in the obſervations on the boundaries of Great Tibet. Temir-kand, or the fortreſs of iron, ſeems to command the paſs between Great and Little Tibet: and the two Gangas of the Chineſe maps (ſuppoſed ſources of the Ganges) are probably rivers which join the Indus from the eaſt.

[25] Turner, 398.

JAPAN.

CHAPTER I.

Historical Geography.

Names.—Extent.—Original Population.—Progreſſive Geography.—Hiſtorical Epochs and Antiquities.

THE kingdom, or, as it is by ſome ſtyled, the empire of Japan, has by moſt geographers been claſſed among the Aſiatic iſles, and has in conſequence been treated with more brevity than its importance demands. For, excepting China, no exiſting Aſiatic monarchy can aſpire to ſuperior rank, or is more calculated to excite rational curioſity, from the ſingularity of its government, abundant population, progreſs in the arts of life, and peculiar manners of the people. The Japaneſe iſlands may in ſome meaſure be compared with Great Britain and Ireland, forming a grand inſular power near the eaſtern extremity of Aſia, like that of the Britiſh iſles near the weſtern extremity of Europe. Nor are ample modern materials wanting; for the honeſt and induſtrious Kæmpfer has given us a deſcription which ſometimes rivals the Britannia of Camden in minuteneſs and preciſion; and Thunberg, an able naturaliſt, has in his travels produced a ſupplement; ſo that few deficiencies remain in our knowledge of this intereſting country.

Marco

JAPAN
SEA OF JAPAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
Cape Sngaar
Firojaka
Akita
Nambu
Nabo
Yanasawa
Sacata
Ayzu
Shendai
Sataque
Matsima
Toy
Vynarima
DEWA
Shudaibama
Awasima
Sado
Cape Noto
NOTO
JETSIU
KODSKE
Naco
Cape Kesima
Fileqni
Gasima
SIMOSA
Fage Head
YEDO
Welwish Road
KADSUSA
Sand Point
AWA
White Point
C. Awa
KAGA
Canazawa
FIDA
KAY
MISASI
MINO
SAGOAMI
Farra
IDSU
OMI
TOTOMI
ICAWA
Hamamatsu
Owari
Gulf of Owari
Josida
Isle of Jeddo
TANGO
WAKASA
Kuki
Ubama
Oki
TASIMA
Silver Mines
TANBA
Kwioga
Miaco
Osaca
FOKI
INABA
Tottori
IDZUMO
MIMASACA
FARIMA
SITZ
ISJE
SMA
IOA
BISEN
Aco
Hiogo
IWAMI
BITSIU
BINGO
AKI
NAGATO
SUWO
SANUKI
AWA
IJO
TOSSA
IKI
Tsusima
Nagasaki
Amakusa
OSUMI
SATSUMA
FIGO
FIGA
BUNGO
FIDSEN
TSIKUDSEN
BUDSEN
Goto Islands
Cape Noto
Cape Kesima
Cape Awa
Cape Idsu
Cape Ava
Cape Sangar
Tsusima
Iki
Nagasaki
Amakusa
Osumi
Satsuma
Bungo
Figo
Figa
Sanuki
Awa
Tosa
Kii
Kishiu
Isle of Jeddo
Gulf of Owari
Gulf of Osaca
Strait of Corea
Strait of Sangaar
Sea of Corea
Sea of Japan
Pacific Ocean
Tsusima
Iki
Goto Islands
Tanegasima
Yakusima
Gebroeders
Eylandeu
Mitarisima
Tasima
Tsoesima
Tsoesima
Sampoa
Pinghai
Fim ling tao
Tchiang Chan tao
Lung Kiam
Kang
Singtcheon
Tsoesima
Tsinchcon
Chin-hai
Keyzima
Tsoesima
Fwaksima
Teyuen
Tsondjuen
Coaksiang
Matao
Ioquatae
Kentae
Tanegasima
Yakusima
Gebroeders
Eylandeu
Mitarisima
Nakdsima or Burnings Isle
Chippo
Tasima
Tsoesima
Tsoesima
Sampoa
Pinghai
Fim ling tao
Tchiang Chan tao
Lung Kiam
Kang
Singtcheon
Tsoesima
Tsinchcon
Chin-hai
Keyzima
Tsoesima
Fwaksima
Teyuen
Tsondjuen
Coaksiang
Matao
Ioquatae
Kentae

Names.

Marco Polo, the father of modern Aſiatic geography, mentions Japan by the name of Zipangri or Zipangu. The inhabitants themſelves call it Nipon, or Nifon; and the Chineſe Sippon, and Jepuen.

Extent.

This empire extends from the 30th to the 41ſt degree of N. latitude; and according to the moſt recent maps from the 131ſt to the 142d degree of E. longitude from Greenwich. Beſides many ſmaller iſles, it preſents two conſiderable ones in the S. W., that of Kiuſiu (alſo termed Saikokf or the weſtern country); and that of Sikokf. But by far the moſt important iſland is that of Nipon, to the N. E. of the two former. The geography of Kæmpfer has been corrected by recent voyages, according to which the length of Kiuſiu, from N. to S. is about two degrees, or 140 Britiſh miles; the greateſt breadth about 90. Sikokf is about 90 Britiſh miles in length, by half the breadth. The grand iſle of Nipon is in length from S. W. to N. E. not leſs than 750 Britiſh miles; but is ſo narrow in proportion, that the medial breadth cannot be aſſumed above 80, though in two projecting parts it may double that number. Theſe iſlands are divided into provinces and diſtricts, as uſual in the moſt civilized countries.

To the N. of Nipon is another large iſle, that of Jeſſo, or Chicha, which having received ſome Japaneſe colonies, is generally regarded as ſubject to Japan; but being inhabited by a ſavage people, is rather conſidered as a foreign conqueſt than as a part of this civilized empire.

Original Population.

The original population of Japan has been little illuſtrated; but the Japaneſe ſeem to be a kindred race with the Chineſe: though, according to Kæmpfer, the languages be radically diſtinct. But if compared with that of Corea, the neareſt land, and the latter with the Chineſe, perhaps a gradation might be obſervable. The Japaneſe may have migrated from the continent, when both the Chineſe and themſelves were in the earlier ſtages of ſociety; and the complete inſular ſeparation may have given riſe to a language rendered peculiar by the progreſs of a diſtinct civilization.

Progreſſive Geography.

Before the account publiſhed by Kæmpfer, Japan had been imperfectly explored by the Portugueſe; and ſince 1730, the date of Kæmpfer's publication, many important improvements have been made, that author having failed in an exact delineation of the empire, which he chiefly

Progressive Geography.

chiefly derived from crude Japaneſe maps, and having erred ſo groſsly as to confound the iſle of Jeſſo with Kamſchatka, from which, beſides the great difference in longitude, it is diſtant about 6 degrees, or 360 geographical miles! Theſe faults are not indicated to upbraid this induſtrious writer, who, like all others, muſt only be eſtimated by the ſtate of knowledge when he wrote, but for the information of thoſe who, unaware of the daily progreſs of geography, repoſe an undue confidence on antiquated authorities.

Hiſtorical Epochs.

The hiſtory of their own country is univerſally ſtudied by the Japaneſe; and Kæmpfer has produced an elaborate abſtract, divided into three epochs, the fabulous, the doubtful, and the certain.

The firſt extends beyond the judaic era of the creation, when the empire is fabled to have been governed by ſeven great celeſtial ſpirits ſucceſſively; and the laſt having wedded a goddeſs, there ſucceeded a race of five demigods, one of which is ſaid to have reigned 250,000 years, while the laſt reigned more than 800,000!

The ſecond or uncertain epoch is by Kæmpfer interwoven with the Chineſe hiſtory: this part of his work demonſtrating that the Japaneſe themſelves at leaſt acknowledge their government and civilization to have been derived from China. Sin Noo, one of theſe Chineſe monarchs admitted by the Japaneſe into their annals, is repreſented with the head of a bull, or with two horns, as having taught the uſe of agriculture and herds;[1] perhaps the ſimple and natural origin of the Jupiter Ammon, and ſimilar images of claſſical antiquity.

The third or certain period begins with the hereditary ſucceſſion of the eccleſiaſtic emperors, from the year 660 before the Chriſtian era, to the year of Chriſt 1585, during which 107 princes of the ſame lineage governed Japan. At the laſt period the ſecular princes aſſumed the ſupreme authority. In general the reigns are pacific; though at very diſtant intervals the Mandſhurs and Coreans occaſionally invaded Japan, but were always defeated by the valour of the inhabitants. In the reign of Gouda, the ninetieth Dairi, or ſpiritual emperor, the Monguls under Mooko attempted a grand invaſion of Japan, after having conquered China about fourteen years before. The number of ſmall veſſels is ex-

[1] Kæmpfer, i. 231. French tranſlation.

aggerated

aggerated to 4000, and that of the army to 240,000; and it is probable that numerous Chineſe junks contained a formidable army of Monguls. But they were diſperſed and almoſt wholly deſtroyed by a furious tempeſt, which the Japaneſe piouſly aſcribed to the gods their protectors. In 1585 the generals of the crown, or ſecular emperors, who were alſo hereditary, aſſumed the ſupreme power: the Dairis being afterwards confined, and ſtrictly guarded, that they might not reaſſume their ancient authority. Historical Epochs.

The temples and palaces being conſtructed of wood, few monuments of antiquity can remain. Some of the caſtles of the nobility have walls of earth or ſtone; but the moſt ancient relics are probably the coins and idols. Antiquities.

CHAPTER II.

Political Geography.

Religion.—Government.—Laws.—Population.—Colonies.—Army.—Navy.—Revenues.—Political Importance and Relations.

THE eſtabliſhed religion of Japan is a polytheiſm, joined with the acknowledgment of a ſupreme creator. There are two principal ſects, that of Sinto and that of Budſdo. The firſt acknowledges a ſupreme being, far ſuperior to the little claims and worſhip of man, whence they adore the inferior deities as mediators, the idea of a mediator being indiſpenſable in almoſt every form of religion. They believe that the ſouls of the virtuous have a place aſſigned to them immediately under heaven, while thoſe of the wicked wander in the air till they expiate their offences. The tranſmigration of ſouls is of courſe unknown. They abſtain from animal food, deteſt bloodſhed, and will not touch any dead body.[1] Religion.

[1] Thunberg, iv. 19.

"Although

Religion. "Although the profeſſors of this religion be perſuaded that their gods know all things, and that therefore it is unneceſſary to pray to them upon any occaſion, they have nevertheleſs both temples and certain ſtated holidays. Their gods are called *Sin* or *Kami*; and their temples are ſtyled *Mia*. Theſe temples conſiſt of ſeveral different apartments and galleries, with windows and doors in front, which can be taken away and replaced at pleaſure, according to the cuſtom of the country. The floors are covered with ſtraw mats, and the roofs project ſo far on every ſide as to overhang an elevated path, in which people walk round the temple. In theſe temples one meets with no viſible idol, nor any image which is deſigned to repreſent the ſupreme inviſible Being: though they ſometimes keep a little image in a box, repreſenting ſome inferior divinity, to whom the temple is conſecrated. In the centre of the temple is frequently placed a large mirror, made of caſt metal well poliſhed, which is intended to remind thoſe that come to worſhip, that in like manner as their perſonal blemiſhes are faithfully pourtrayed in the mirror, ſo do the ſecret blemiſhes and evil qualities of their hearts lie open and expoſed to the all-ſearching eyes of the immortal gods." [a]

The prieſts are either ſecular or monaſtic; the latter alone being entruſted with the myſteries. The feſtivals and modes of worſhip are chearful, and even gay; for they regard the gods as beings who ſolely delight in diſpenſing happineſs. Beſides the firſt day of the year, and three or four other grand feſtivals, the firſt day of the month is always kept as a holiday. There are ſeveral orders of monks and nuns, as in the Roman Catholic ſyſtem: but human nature is every where the ſame.

The ſect of Budſdo was imported from Hindoſtan, being the ſame with that of Budha or Boodh, reported to have been born in Ceylon about 1000 years before the birth of Chriſt. Paſſing through China and Corea, it has been mingled with foreign maxims, but the tenet of the metempſychoſis remains; wicked ſouls being ſuppoſed to migrate into the bodies of animals, till they have undergone a due purgation.

[a] Thunberg, iv. p. 21.

The

The doctrine of their philoſophers and moraliſts is called Shuto, and partakes of the Epicurean, though it acknowledge, with Confucius, that the pureſt ſource of pleaſure is a virtuous life. This ſect admits a ſoul of the world; but does not allow inferior gods, temples, nor religious forms. By a ſingular inconſiſtency the perſecution of the Chriſtians greatly diminiſhed the number of the Epicureans; who, in order to avoid ſuſpicion, are eager to return to the common religion of the country. Religion.

Soon after the diſcovery of this country by the Portugueſe, jeſuitic miſſionaries arrived in 1549: and their ſucceſſors continued to diffuſe their doctrine till 1638, when 37,000 Chriſtians were maſſacred. Several perſecutions had formerly taken place; and in 1590 upwards of 20,000 are ſaid to have periſhed. The pride and avarice of the Portugueſe conſpired with the vain ambition of the jeſuits, (who, not contented with their ſtation, endeavoured to introduce themſelves into the governing councils of the nation,) firſt to contaminate and render odious the religion which they profeſſed, in its pure principles eſſentially oppoſite to ſuch views, and afterwards to produce this melancholy cataſtrophe; the exiſtence of the Chriſtian faith being through ſuch perverſion found incompatible with that of a ſtate otherwiſe univerſally tolerant. Since that memorable epoch Chriſtianity has been held in ſupreme deteſtation; and the croſs, with its other ſymbols, are annually trampled under foot; but it is a fable that the Dutch are conſtrained to join in this ceremony.

The Kubo, or ſecular emperor, is now ſole monarch of the country; but till near the end of the ſeventeenth century the Dairis, pontiffs, or ſpiritual monarchs, held the ſupreme authority, being appointed by the high eccleſiaſtical court according to their laws of ſucceſſion. Yet occaſionally the appointment has been controverted; and Japan has been ravaged by many civil wars. The eccleſiaſtical dignities were of ſix orders, ſome belonging to particular offices, others merely honorary. The ſecular prince is accuſtomed to confer, with the conſent of the dairi, two honorary ranks, equivalent to our noblemen and knights. The eccleſiaſtical court is chiefly occupied with literary purſuits, the Government.

Dairi

Government. Dairi reſiding at Miaco; and his court remains, though not in its former ſplendour.

The government of each province is intruſted to a reſident prince, who is ſtrictly reſponſible for his adminiſtration, his family remaining at the emperor's court as hoſtages; and he is himſelf obliged to make an annual appearance, the journey being performed with great pomp, and accompanied with valuable preſents. The emperor, as in the feudal times of Europe, derives his chief revenue from his own eſtate, conſiſting of five inferior provinces, and ſome detached towns. Each prince enjoys the revenues of his fief or government, with which he ſupports his court and military force, repairs the roads, and defrays every civil expence. The princes of the firſt dignity are ſtyled Daimio, thoſe of inferior rank Siomio. They are generally hereditary, but the Siomios are not only obliged to leave their families at Jedo the capital, but to reſide there themſelves for ſix months in the year.

There do not ſeem to be any traces of a national council, or even aſſembly of nobles, which ſeems indeed foreign to the Aſiatic manners, though it may be traced in ancient Perſia. The cauſe of this defect has not been inveſtigated, though it neceſſarily ſpring from a deſpotic form of government, univerſal in the civilized countries of Aſia; where the ebullition of the paſſions ſeems too ſtrong for cool debate or ſenatorial eloquence, and difference of opinion would inflame into mutual ſlaughter. The ſingular conſtitution of Japan therefore conſiſts of an abſolute hereditary monarchy, ſupported by a number of abſolute hereditary princes; whoſe jealouſy of each other's power conſpires, with domeſtic pledges, to render them ſubſervient to one ſupreme.

Laws. The ſuperiority of the laws of Japan over thoſe of Europe has been loudly proclaimed by Kæmpfer. The parties themſelves appear, and the cauſe is determined without delay. Yet Kæmpfer's information on this head is defective, as he does not mention any code of laws, and chiefly dwells on the advantages ariſing from the excluſion of ſtrangers from the kingdom, it being alſo death for any Japaneſe to leave his country. Thunberg informs us that the laws are few, but rigidly enforced, without regard to perſons, partiality, or violence.[3] Moſt crimes

[3] iv. 64.

are

are punished with death, fines being considered as partiality to the rich; but the sentence of death must be signed by the privy council at Jedo. Parents and relations are made answerable for the crimes of those whose moral education they ought to have superintended. The police is excellent, there not only being a chief magistrate of each town, called Nimban, but an Ottona or commissary of each street, elected by the inhabitants to watch over property and tranquillity. Two inhabitants in their turn nightly patrole the street to guard against fire. Laws.

The best proof that the laws are salutary is that few crimes are committed, and few punishments are inflicted. The brief code, according to Thunberg, is posted up in every town and village, in large letters, on a spot surrounded with rails.[4]

The population of the Japanese empire, like that of other Asiatic states, cannot be treated with much precision. Ancient and modern travellers seem to have passed this subject in silence. Perhaps the Japanese have some prejudice against any enumeration, or chuse from political views to bury it in obscurity; while the Chinese, with like design, may perhaps magnify the population of their country. All travellers however agree that the population is surprising, and though a great part of the country be mountainous, yet even the mountains are the objects of obstinate cultivation. Thunberg observes that the capital, Jedo, is said to be 63 British miles in circumference, and at any rate rivals Pekin in size.[5] Many of the villages are three quarters of a mile in length; and some so long that it requires several hours to walk through them: and these large villages frequently occur at very short distances. Kæmpfer says that the number of people daily travelling on the highways is inconceivable, and the *tokaido*, the chief of the seven great roads, is sometimes more crowded than the most frequented streets of European capitals.[6] In another passage he expresses his amazement at the extraordinary population, the highways passing through almost continuous villages, while the capitals, Jedo and Miaco, equal in size any cities in the world. Varenius the geographer, who justly esteemed this country so interesting as to deserve a particular description, has from the Population.

[4] Thunberg, iv. 72. [5] iii. 282. [6] ii. 345. and iii. 318.

Population. beſt authorities eſtimated the ſtanding army maintained by the princes and governors at 368,000 infantry, and 38,000 cavalry: while the Kubo, or emperor, maintains 100,000 foot, and 20,000 horſe: thus conſtituting in all a regular force of 468,000 infantry, and 58,000 cavalry.[7] It is probable that this army does not bear a greater proportion to the population, than that of an European ſtate in time of peace; and as the army doubles that of France under the monarchy, ſo the population may alſo be double. Perhaps a more ſafe eſtimate may be formed, by ſuppoſing the population of Japan to equal that of China; and the former country being about one tenth part the ſize of the latter, the population will be about 30,000,000.

Colonies. Though the national laws prohibit emigration, yet where the Japaneſe make conqueſts, they ſeem to regard the country as their own, and to form ſettlements without heſitation. Hence Japaneſe colonies may be found in Jeſſo, and other adjacent iſles: nay even in iſles of the Indian archipelago, ſo that their laws, as in China, ſeem rather theoretic.

Army. The army has been already mentioned as amounting to more than half a million; and the character of the people is ſingularly brave and

Navy. reſolute. The navy, like that of the other oriental powers, is beneath notice. The Japaneſe veſſels are open at the ſtern, ſo that they cannot bear a boiſterous ſea; and though, like the Chineſe, they have the uſe of the compaſs, yet it is inconceivable how they could, in former times, make voyages, as is aſſerted, to Formoſa, and even to Java.

Revenues. The revenues of this empire are minutely ſtated by Varenius, according to princes and provinces, the ſum total being 2834 tons of gold, in the Flemiſh mode of computation; and taking the ton at only 10,000l. ſterling, the amount would be 28,340,000l ſterling, beſides the provinces and cities which are immediately ſubject to the emperor. Theſe revenues muſt not however be conſidered as national, being only yielded in coin to the various princes. The emperor however, beſides the large revenues of his provinces, has a conſiderable treaſure in gold and ſilver, diſpoſed in cheſts of 1000 taels, or thayls, each being nearly equal in value to a Dutch rix dollar, or about four ſhillings and

[7] Deſcr. Jap. Cap. ix.

fourpence

fourpence Engliſh money. As the frenzy of mankind generally expends the public revenue in the ſupport of an army, the real weight of the Japaneſe reſources may beſt be eſtimated from the numerous army ſupported.* Revenues.

Japan maintains no political relations with any other ſtate; and conſiſting of iſlands without a navy, its external political importance is of courſe confined, if not annihilated. No danger is to be apprehended except from Ruſſia; and it ſeems doubtful whether, even ſuppoſing the Ruſſians capable of conducting a ſufficient force through the wilds of Siberia, European weapons and tactics would prevail againſt prodigious numbers, and determined valour. To Ruſſia indeed the conqueſt might be important as ſecuring numerous havens, and a conſequent powerful fleet in the rear of her Aſiatic poſſeſſions; but the unavoidable interference of China, juſtly apprehenſive of the conſequence, would prove an invincible obſtacle; nor is it likely that the kingdom and laws of Japan will be overturned; or her vaſt population wafted to various regions of the globe, in ſubſervience to Ruſſian ambition. Political Importa ce and Relations.

CHAPTER III.

Civil Geography.

Manners and Cuſtoms.—Language.—Literature.—Education.—Cities and Towns.—Edifices.—Roads.—Inland Navigation.—Manufactures and Commerce.

A RECENT traveller has deſcribed the perſons of this ſingular people in the following terms.[1] "The people of this nation are well made, active, free, and eaſy in their motions, with ſtout limbs,

* Thunberg, iv. 8. computes the revenue of the crown lands at more than forty four thouſands of millions of ſacks of rice, each ſack being about twenty pounds weight. But this calculation implies nothing to an European reader.

[1] Thunberg, iii. 251.

although their ſtrength is not to be compared to that of the northern inhabitants of Europe. The men are of the middling ſize, and in general not very corpulent; yet I have ſeen ſome that were ſufficiently fat. They are of a yellowiſh colour all over, ſometimes bordering on brown, and ſometimes on white. The lower claſs of people, who, in ſummer when at work, lay bare the upper part of their bodies, are ſun burnt, and conſequently brown. Ladies of diſtinction, who ſeldom go out in the open air without being covered, are perfectly white. It is by their eyes that, like the Chineſe, theſe people are diſtinguiſhable. Theſe organs have not that rotundity which thoſe of other nations exhibit; but are oblong, ſmall, and are ſunk deeper in the head, in conſequence of which theſe people have almoſt the appearance of being pink-eyed. In other reſpects their eyes are dark brown, or rather black; and the eye lids form in the great angle of the eye a deep furrow, which makes the Japaneſe look as if they were ſharp ſighted, and diſcriminates them from other nations. The eye brows are alſo placed ſomewhat higher. Their heads are in general large, and their necks ſhort; their hair black, thick, and ſhining, from the uſe they make of oils. Their noſes, though not flat, are yet rather thick and ſhort."

Manners and Cuſtoms.

This highly civilized people muſt of courſe diſplay great diverſity of character, but the virtues far preponderate over the vices; and even their pride is uſeful, as it prevents them from ſtooping to the mean tricks of the maritime Chineſe. Though polygamy be allowed, yet one wife only is acknowledged, the others being merely concubines. Marriages are conducted by the parents, or relations; and domeſtic tranquillity is inſured by the wife's being under the abſolute diſpoſal of her huſband, the laws allowing no claim whatever in caſe ſhe incur his diſpleaſure.[a] Hence, though the women be not confined, examples of infidelity are very rare. In caſe of ſeparation the wife is condemned to the ignominy of having her head always ſhaven. The marriage ceremony is performed before an altar, by the bride's lighting a torch from which the bridegroom kindles another.

The bodies of the diſtinguiſhed dead continue to be burned, while others are buried. Periodical viſits are paid to the tombs, beſides the feſtival of lantherns, held as in China, in honour of the departed.

[a] Varenius, 39.

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MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

The Japaneſe uſe great varieties of food and ſauces. The maſter or miſtreſs of the houſe is not haraſſed with the trouble of carving, the meat being previouſly cut into ſmall pieces, ſerved up in baſons of porcelain, or japanned wood. The general drink is ſacki, or beer made of rice; which laſt article alſo ſupplies the place of bread. They uſe many kinds of vegetables and fruits. The uſe of tea is alſo univerſal; but wine and ſpirituous liquors are unknown. The uſe of tobacco ſeems to have been introduced by the Portugueſe; and the practice of ſmoking has become general.

The houſes of the Japaneſe are of wood, coloured white, ſo as to reſemble ſtone; and though roomy and commodious never exceed two ſtories in height, the upper ſerving for lofts and garrets, and ſeldom being occupied.[3] Each houſe forms but one room, which may be divided into apartments at pleaſure, by moveable partitions ſliding in grooves. They uſe neither chairs nor tables, ſitting on ſtraw mats, the meal being ſerved apart to each on a ſmall ſquare wooden ſalver. In Jedo the houſes are covered with tiles; but the general fabric is a frame work of wood, ſplit bamboos, and clay.

The dreſs conſiſts of trowſers; and what we call night gowns, or looſe robes of ſilk or cotton, are univerſally worn by both ſexes.[4] Theſe are faſtened by a girdle; the number being increaſed according to the coldneſs of the weather; and in caſes of ſudden warmth thrown from the ſhoulders and remain ſuſpended by the girdle. Stockings are not uſed; and the ſhoes are commonly of rice ſtraw. The men ſhave the head from the forehead to the nape, but the hair on the ſides is turned up and faſtened at the crown of the head: conical hats made of graſs are worn on journies, but the faſhion of wearing the hair forms the common economical covering of the head; and ſeems calculated, like the heavy head dreſs of the ancient Egyptians, to reſiſt the force of too potent a ſun.

The Japaneſe feſtivals, the games, and theatrical amuſements, equal thoſe of moſt civilized nations. Dancing girls are common, as in other oriental countries; and the introduction of boys indicates an abominable propenſity here, as in China, neither reputed a crime nor a ſingularity.

[3] Thunberg, iii. 112. [4] Ib. 267.

Language. Thunberg has publiſhed a curious vocabulary of the Japaneſe language, which ſeems indeed to have little connection with the monaſyllabic ſpeech of the Chineſe. There are alſo dictionaries drawn up by the Jeſuits.

Literature. In the ſciences and literature the Japaneſe yield to few of the oriental nations. This ſenſible people ſtudies houſekeeping, or domeſtic economy, as an indiſpenſable ſcience; and next to this every Japaneſe is verſed in the hiſtory of his country.[5] Aſtronomy is cultivated, but has not arrived at much perfection. They ſurvey with tolerable accuracy; and their maps are as exact as their imperfect inſtruments will permit. The art of printing is ancient, but they uſe blocks, not moveable types, and only impreſs one ſide of the paper. Some of their arts and manufactures even ſurpaſs thoſe of Europe. There are excellent workmen in iron and copper; and to no eaſtern country do they yield in manufactures of ſilk and cotton; while in varniſhing wood they are well known to have no equals. Glaſs is alſo common; and they even form teleſcopes. The porcelain is deemed ſuperior to that of China. Their ſwords diſplay incomparable ſkill; and many varieties of paper are prepared from the bark of a ſpecies of mulberry tree. The celebrated varniſh is from the *rhus vernix*.

Education. There are many ſchools in which the children are taught to read and write; their education being accompliſhed without the degradation of perſonal chaſtiſement, while courage is inſtilled by the repetition of ſongs in praiſe of deceaſed heroes.

Cities and Towns. Jedo. The capital city of the Japaneſe empire is Jedo, centrically ſituated on a bay in the S. E. ſide of the chief iſland Nipon. The houſes never exceed two ſtories, with numerous ſhops towards the ſtreets. The harbour is ſo ſhallow that an European ſhip would be obliged to anchor at the diſtance of five leagues. A fire happened in this city in the year 1772, which is ſaid to have conſumed ſix leagues in length and three in breadth: and earthquakes are here familiar as in other regions of Japan. The emperor's palace is ſurrounded with ſtone walls, and ditches with draw-bridges; forming of itſelf a conſiderable town, ſaid to be five leagues in circumference.[6] In this, and ſimilar inſtances of oriental

[5] Thunberg, iv. 54. [6] Ib. iii. 189.

population and extent, though the beſt authorities be followed, yet the reader may, with the author, ſuſpend his belief. The Japaneſe affirm that Jedo would occupy a perſon twenty-one hours to walk around its circumference, which might thus amount to about twenty-one leagues: and that it is ſeven leagues in length by five in breadth. A large river, not named by Kæmpfer, paſſes through the capital, and beſides the wide ditches of the palace, ſupplies ſeveral canals. There are no walls nor fortifications, which are unknown in Japaneſe cities: but there are many ſplendid houſes of the numerous princes. As Europeans have here little freedom, the accounts given by Kæmpfer and Thunberg are little ſatisfactory. Cities and Towns.

Miaco, the ſpiritual capital, and ſecond city of the empire, is placed in an inland ſituation about 160 miles S. W. from Jedo, on a level plain. Yet it is the firſt commercial city, and is celebrated for the principal manufactures. It is alſo the ſeat of the imperial mint: and the Dairi's court being literary, all books are printed here. Kæmpfer informs us that, upon an enumeration taken in 1674, the inhabitants were found to amount to 405,642; of whom were males 182,070; and 223,572 females; without including the numerous attendants of the Dairi. But they are divided according to ſex; and the children probably excluded. Miaco.

Nagaſaki being the neareſt city to the Dutch factory in the iſle of Dezima, has of courſe attracted the particular attention of our travellers. The harbour is the only one in which foreign ſhips are permitted to anchor, a privilege now enjoyed only by the Dutch and Chineſe. The Portugueſe trade raiſed this place, from a mere village, to its preſent ſize and conſequence. Nagaſaki.

The other cities in the Japaneſe empire may amount to thirty or forty; but, except thoſe on the route from Nagaſaki to the capital, few have been explored by European travellers. Oſacca, and Sakai, boaſt the name of imperial cities.

Of the principal edifices of the Japaneſe ſome idea may be formed from the deſcriptions which our travellers give of the imperial palace, which, like thoſe of the Chineſe, conſiſts of many dwellings, occupying an immenſe ſpace. The falloon of the hundred mats is 600 feet in length Edifices.

Edifices. length by 300 in breadth. There is a high ſquare tower, (a mark of dignity not permitted here to the grandees, though uſual at their own courts,) which conſiſts of ſeveral ſtages richly decorated; and moſt of the roofs are ornamented with golden dragons. The pillars and ceilings are of cedar, camphor, and other precious woods; but the only furniture conſiſts of white mats, fringed with gold. The emperor gives audience in a ſmaller chamber, where he is ſeated on carpets.

Roads. The roads ſeem to be maintained in excellent order; but the mountainous nature of the country has prevented the formation of canals, which indeed the univerſal proximity of the ſea renders almoſt unneceſſary; otherwiſe ſo ſenſible and induſtrious a nation would doubtleſs have imitated the Chineſe example.

Inland Navigation.

Manufactures and Commerce. The chief manufactures of Japan have been already mentioned in the account of arts and ſciences. The inland commerce is very conſiderable, being free and exempted from impoſts.[8] The harbours are crowded with large and ſmall veſſels; the high roads with various goods; and the ſhops well repleniſhed. Large fairs are alſo held in different places, to which there is a great concourſe of people. The trade with China is the moſt important, conſiſting of raw ſilk, ſugar, turpentine, drugs, &c. while the exports are copper in bars, lackered ware, &c. Thunberg repreſents the profits of the Dutch trade as very inconſiderable, ſo that the Company only employed two ſhips. The Japaneſe coins are of a remarkable form, the gold being called Kobangs. The ſilver called Kodama ſometimes repreſents Daikok, the god of riches, ſitting upon two barrels of rice, with a hammer in his right hand, and a ſack at his left. The Seni, of copper or iron, are ſtrung like the Chineſe pieces of a ſimilar value.

[8] Thunberg, iv. 106.

CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seaſons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Volcanoes.—Foreſts.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Iſles.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.

THE heat of ſummer is in Japan extremely violent, and would even be inſupportable, were not the air cooled by the ſea breezes. Equally ſevere is the cold in winter, when the wind blows from the north, or north eaſt, and ſeems to be impregnated with particles of ice from the Arctic ocean. The weather is changeable throughout the year; and there are abundant falls of rain, eſpecially in the ſatſaki, or rainy months, which begin at Midſummer.[1] This copious moiſture is the chief cauſe of the fertility of Japan, and its conſequent high degree of population.

Thunder is not unfrequent; and tempeſts, hurricanes, and earthquakes are very common. Thunberg has publiſhed his thermometrical obſervations, from which a clear idea may be formed of the climate. The greateſt degree of heat, at Nagaſaki, was 98° in the month of Auguſt; and the ſevereſt cold in January 35°. The thunder in the ſummer months is generally during the night; and the ſnow will remain on the ground ſome days even in the ſouth.

Face of the Country.

Though there be plains of conſiderable extent, as appears from the deſcription of Miaco, yet Thunberg aſſures us that the whole country conſiſts of mountains, hills, and valleys, the coaſt being moſtly rocky and precipitous, and inveſted with a turbulent ſea. The face of the country is alſo diverſified with many rivers, and rivulets, by numerous ſingular tribes of vegetation; and generally excites the ſocial ideas of

[1] Thunberg, iii. 234.

induſtry,

Face of the Country. Soil and Agriculture.

induſtry, more calculated perhaps to delight the heart than the wild appearances of deſerted nature. The ſoil in itſelf may be ſaid to be rather barren; but the prolific ſhowers conſpire with labour and manure to overcome even this obſtacle. Thunberg[2] has preſented us with ſome curious details concerning Japaneſe agriculture, a ſcience in the higheſt eſtimation with this ſenſible people, ſo that except the moſt barren, and untractable mountains, the earth is univerſally cultivated; and even moſt of the mountains and hills. Free from all feudal and eccleſiaſtical impediments, and highly reſpected by the other ſocial claſſes, the farmer cultivates the ſoil with freedom and induſtry. There are no commons; and if any portion be left uncultivated it may be ſeized by a more induſtrious neighbour. But when Thunberg praiſes the want of meadows, he ſeems to err againſt European rules, which conſider cattle as neceſſary for manure. The Japaneſe mode is to form a mixture of excrements of all kinds, with kitchen refuſe, which is carried in pails into the field, and poured with a ladle upon the plants, when they have attained the height of about ſix inches, ſo that they inſtantly receive the whole benefit. The weeding is alſo carried to the utmoſt degree of nicety.

The ſides of the hills are cultivated by means of ſtone walls, ſupporting level plats ſown with rice or eſculent roots.[3] "Thouſands of theſe beds adorn moſt of their mountains, and give them an appearance which excites the greateſt aſtoniſhment in the breaſts of the ſpectators." When we conſider that the climate of Japan is expoſed to heavy rains, we are the more led to blame the want of induſtry in the Highlands of Scotland, and ſome other mountainous diſtricts of Europe. Rice is the chief grain; buck wheat, rye, barley, and wheat being little uſed. A kind of potatoe* is abundant; with ſeveral ſorts of beans and peas, turnips, cabbages, &c. The rice is ſown in April, and gathered in November: in which laſt month wheat is ſown, and reaped in June. The barley alſo ſtands the winter. From the ſeed of a kind of cabbage lamp oil is expreſſed; and ſeveral plants are cultivated for

[2] iv. 80. [3] Ib. 83.

* It is the Batatas (convolvulus edulis) in the time of Queen Elizabeth imported from Spain to England; and often confounded with the potatoe, (ſolanum tuberoſum) which is rare in Japan.

dying;

dying; with the cotton ſhrubs, and mulberry trees, which laſt feed abundance of ſilk worms. The varniſh and camphor trees, the vine, the cedar, the tea tree, and the bamboo reed, not only grow wild, but are planted for numerous uſes. Soil and Agriculture.

The rivers of Nipon have not been delineated with much care. Among the few named are the Nogaſa, and the Jedogawa, which paſſes by Oſaka, where it is crowned with ſeveral bridges of cedar, from 300 to 360 feet in length. The river Ojingawa* is one of the largeſt and moſt dangerous in the country, though not ſubject, like the others, to ſwell during rains. Fuſigawa is alſo a large and rapid river; as is that called Sakgawa. The largeſt river ſeems to be the Jodo, or perhaps in the German pronunciation Yodo, which flows S. W. from the central lake of Oitz; but our geography of the Japaneſe empire is far from being complete. Among the moſt important rivers Kæmpfer names the Ujin (the Ojin of Thunberg;) the Oomi reported by the Japaneſe hiſtory to have burſt from the ground in one night; and the Aſka.[4] Rivers.

One of the chief lakes ſeems to be that of Oitz, which emits two rivers, one towards Miaco, the other towards Oſaka; and it is ſaid to be 50 Japaneſe leagues in length, each about an hour's journey on horſe-back: but the breadth is inconſiderable. Lakes.

The principal Japaneſe mountain is that of Fuſi, covered with ſnow almoſt throughout the year. The Fakonie mountains are in the ſame quarter, ſurrounding a ſmall lake of the ſame name.[5] Many of the mountains are overgrown with wood; and others cultivated as before explained. There are ſeveral volcanoes; and in general they abound with evergreen trees and cryſtalline ſprings. Mountains.

Near Firando there is a volcanic iſland, nor are others unknown in the ſurrounding ſeas.[6] In the province of Figo there is a volcano which conſtantly emits flames; and another, formerly a coal mine, in the province of Tſikuſer. The courſe and extent of the various ranges of mountains have not been indicated. Volcanoes.

* The word *Gawa*, or *Gava*, ſeems to imply a river, in which caſe the repetition is abſurd, though often uſed in the geography of countries little known.

[4] i. 163. [5] Ib. iii. 164. [6] Kæmpfer, i. 166.

Volcanoes. Jeſan. Near the lake of Oitz is the delightful mountain of Jeſan; which is eſteemed ſacred and is ſaid to preſent not leſs than 3000 temples.[7]

Foreſts. In the high ſtate of cultivation few foreſts can appear; except thoſe already mentioned as decorating the ſides of mountains.

Botany. The vegetable treaſures of Japan are numerous, and have been ably explored by Kæmpfer and Thunberg: on account however of the enormous population of the country, and the abſolute neceſſity of paying the utmoſt attention to the introduction of whatever may contribute to human ſuſtenance, it is not eaſy to aſcertain how far ſeveral of the eſculent plants cultivated here are truly indigenous. There are many points of reſemblance between the floras of China and Japan, and this ſimilarity has probably been ſtrengthened by a mutual interchange of uſeful vegetables; if indeed both countries have not rather derived ſome of their moſt valuable plants from Cochin-China, or the Philippine iſlands: the ginger, the ſoy bean, black pepper, ſugar, cotton, and indigo, though perhaps natives of the more ſouthern regions of Aſia, are cultivated here with great ſucceſs and in vaſt abundance. The Indian laurel and the camphor tree are found in the high central parts of Japan, as is alſo the rhus vernix, from the bark of which exudes a gum reſin that is ſuppoſed to be the baſis of the exquiſitely beautiful and inimitable black varniſh, with which the inlaid cabinets and other articles of Indian luxury are covered. Beſides the common ſweet, or China orange, another ſpecies, the citrus japonica, is found wild, and almoſt peculiar to this country: two kinds of mulberry are met with both in an indigenous and cultivated ſtate, the one valuable, as the favourite food of the ſilk worm, the other eſteemed for the white fibres of its inner bark, which are manufactured into paper. The larch, the cypreſs, and weeping willow, found in all the warm regions between Japan and the Mediterranean, here arrive at the extremity of their boundary to the eaſt: the ſame may be ſaid of the opium poppy, white lily, and jalap (mirabilis jalapa). Among the ſpecies peculiar to Japan may be mentioned aletris japonica, a ſtately bulbous rooted plant,

[7] Kæmpfer, ii. 28.

camellia japonica, and volkameria japonica. The trumpet-flower (bignonia catalpa) is common to this part of Aſia and Peru; in which circumſtance it reſembles the epidendrum vanilla, whoſe berries form an article of commerce, being largely uſed in the preparation of chocolate. The mimoſa arborea, and tallow tree, the plantain, the cocoa nut tree, and two other palms, the chamærops excelſa and cycas circinalis, adorn the woodland tracts, eſpecially near the ſea ſhore, by the variety of their growth and foliage, while the uncultivated ſwamps by the ſides of the rivers are rendered ſubſervient to the uſes of the inhabitants by the profuſion and magnitude of the bamboos, with which they are covered. Botany.

It is not a little remarkable that neither ſheep, nor goats are found in the whole empire of Japan; the latter being deemed miſchievous to cultivation; while the abundance of cotton and ſilk recompenſe the want of wool. Swine are alſo deemed pernicious to agriculture; and only a few appear in the neighbourhood of Nagaſaki, probably introduced by the Chineſe.[8] There are in general but few quadrupeds; the number of horſes in the empire being computed by Thunberg as equal to thoſe of a ſingle Swediſh town. Still fewer cattle are ſeen; and the Japaneſe neither uſe their fleſh nor their milk, but employ them only in ploughing, or drawing carts. The food conſiſts almoſt entirely of fiſh and fowl, with vegetables. Hens and common ducks are domeſticated, chiefly on account of their eggs. A few dogs are kept from motives of ſuperſtition; and the cats are favourites of the ladies. Zoology.

The wolf appears in the northern provinces, and foxes in other parts; theſe laſt being univerſally deteſted, and conſidered as demons incarnate. The curious reader will find a tolerably ample account in Thunberg's work of the natural hiſtory of this ſingular country; from which ſhall be extracted the following idea of its mineralogy.

"That the precious metals, gold and ſilver, are to be found in abundance in the empire of Japan has been well known, both to the Portugueſe, who formerly exported whole ſhip loads of them, and to Mineralogy.

[8] Thunberg, iv. 95.

Mineralogy.

the Dutch in former times. Gold is found in ſeveral parts; and perhaps Japan may in this reſpect conteſt the palm with the richeſt country in the world: but in order that this metal may not loſe its value, by becoming too plentiful, it is prohibited to dig more than a certain ſtated quantity; not to mention that no metallic mine, of any kind whatever, can be opened and wrought without the emperor's expreſs permiſſion. When this permiſſion is obtained two thirds of the produce are the portion of the emperor, and the proprietor of the land receives one third for his expences. Gold is found in ſmall quantities in the ſand; but the chief part is extracted from cupreous pyrites, diſſolved by brimſtone. The fineſt gold, together with the richeſt gold mine, I was told, are found on the largeſt of the Nipon iſlands near Sado. The next in quality to this is that which is found in Surunga. Beſides theſe places, it is known for a certainty that ſeveral rich gold mines are to be found in Satſuma; as likewiſe in Tſikungo; and in the iſland of Amakuſa. It is uſed for the mint, gilding, and embroidery; but is not carried out of the country.

"Silver muſt formerly have been found in much greater plenty than at preſent, as a large quantity of it was then exported from this country. The Japaneſe conſider it as being more rare than gold, although the latter metal is dearer. They now likewiſe received in barter a conſiderable ſum of Dutch Ducatoons from the Dutch company. It is ſaid to be found in the province of Bingo; and in the more northerly parts towards Kattami, as I was informed, very rich ſilver mines are to be met with. Independently of theſe places the two iſlands which are called the Gold and Silver iſles, *(Ginſima, Kinſima,)* are ſaid to contain a great quantity of both of theſe precious metals. Silver is uſed for coining and for plating.

"Copper is quite common in every part of the empire, and is richly impregnated with gold, conſtituting the main ſource of the wealth of many provinces. It was not only formerly exported in amazing quantities, but ſtill continues to be exported both by the Dutch and Chineſe merchants. The fineſt and moſt malleable is dug in Suruga,

Atſingo, Kyno, Kuni. The laſt ſort is eſteemed to be the moſt malleable of any; whilſt that from Suruga contains the greateſt quantity of gold. A great number of copper mines are to be found in Satſuma, and at other places. Of this metal are made ſmall pieces of money for change; it is uſed likewiſe for plating, for making utenſils of Sowas, for pots, kettles, &c. MINERALOGY.

" Iron ſeems to be ſcarcer than any other metal in this country. It is found however in the provinces of Mimaſaka, Bitsju, and Biſen. This they are neither fond of importing, nor yet of exporting it for ſale. Of it they manufacture ſcymitars, arms, ſciſſors, knives, and various other implements of which they ſtand in need.

" Of amber I had a preſent made me by my friends: they call it Nambu. It was of a dark, as well as of a light yellow colour, and likewiſe ſtreaky. I was told alſo that it is found in this country.

" Brimſtone is found in great abundance in Japan, eſpecially upon a certain iſland near Satſuma. Pit-coal, I was informed, is likewiſe to be met with in the northern provinces. Red agate with white veins I ſaw ſeveral times made uſe of for the buttons, &c. of tobacco pouches, and medicine cheſts; which agate was moſt frequently cut in the ſhape of a butterfly, or ſome other animal."[9]

It may be added from Kæmpfer that braſs is very rare, the calamine being brought from Tunquin; and beautiful tin is found in the province of Bungo, though perhaps this may be the white copper of the Chineſe. Amber greaſe is now diſcharged from the liſt of mineral productions; but a reddiſh naphtha is ſometimes found, and uſed in lamps. Neither antimony nor quickſilver have been diſcovered in Japan.

Thunberg alſo enumerates aſbeſtos, porcelain clay, beautiful fleſh coloured ſteatite, pumice, and white marble.[10]

There are ſeveral warm mineral waters, which the inhabitants uſe for various diſeaſes; particularly thoſe of Obamma, and thoſe in the mountain of Omſen.[11] The natural curioſities of Japan have been little in-

[9] iv. 102. [10] iii. 203. [11] Kæmpfer, i. 167.

veſtigated

Mineralogy. veſtigated, as Europeans have ſeldom viſited the interior of the country.

Iſles. There are many ſmall iſles dependent on Japan, particularly in the S. and E.; among which is Fatſiſio, the place of exile for the grandees. This, and the other ſmall iſles, are ſcarcely known except by name.

THE BIRMAN EMPIRE.

COMPRIZING THE KINGDOMS OF AVA AND PEGU.

CHAPTER I.

Historical Geography.

Name.—Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Inhabitants.—Progreſſive Geography.—Modern Hiſtory.

BEFORE the appearance of a recent intereſting publication[1] little was known concerning this new empire; and geographers were conſtrained to detail the old accounts, which are little ſatisfactory. The Birman empire derives its name from the Birmahs, who have been long known as a warlike nation in the region formerly ſtyled India beyond the Ganges; the capital city of their kingdom being Ava, or Awa. Pegu is by the natives ſtyled Bagoo;[2] being the country ſituated to the ſouth of the former, and juſtly inferred to have been the Golden Cherſoneſe of the ancients. Name.

It is difficult to aſcertain with preciſion the boundaries of the Birman empire. Mr. Symes informs us that "it appears to include the ſpace Extent and Boundaries.

[1] Symes's Account of the embaſſy to Ava. [2] Ib i. 6. 8vo edit.

between

Extent and Boundaries.

between the 9th and 26th degree of north latitude; and between the 92d and 107th degrees of longitude eaſt of Greenwich; about 1050 geographical miles in length and 600 in breadth: theſe are the aſcertainable limits, taken from the Birman accounts; but it is probable that their dominions ſtretch ſtill further to the north. It ſhould however be remarked that the breadth often varies; and is in many places very inconſiderable on what is called the eaſtern Peninſula."[3]

The geography of what is called India beyond the Ganges, a vague name for the wide and various regions between Hindoſtan and China, is ſtill defective. To the north the Birman empire is divided by mountains from Aſam, a country little viſited or known; and further to the eaſt it borders on Tibet and China. On the weſt a range of mountains, and the little river Naaf, divide the Birman poſſeſſions from the Britiſh dominions in Bengal; and the limit is continued by the ſea. But the ſouthern and eaſtern boundaries remain rather obſcure. If extended to the 9th degree of latitude it will include a conſiderable portion of the grand Malaian peninſula to the vicinity of Bangri, or in other words the province of Tanaſerim and city of Merghi, formerly regarded as part of Siam. The eaſtern boundary is yet more vague: if extended to the 107th degree of longitude, it might be ſaid to include almoſt the whole of what is called India beyond the Ganges, as far as the mouths of the Japaneſe river in Cambodia; yet there ſeems no expreſs evidence that Siam is regarded as a portion of the Birman empire; and if it were it would only extend to 103 degrees. Amidſt this uncertainty it muſt ſuffice to obſerve that the Birman empire conſtitutes the fifth grand native power in Aſia, ſince Hindoſtan and Perſia have been divided, and may probably extend its authority over Laos and Cambodia, while it remains divided, by deſerts and ranges of loſty mountains, from the united kingdoms of Cochin-China and Tunquin.

Original Population.

The original population of this region has been little illuſtrated. The alphabet, literature, and religion, are derived from thoſe of the Hindoos; but the language, the grand criterion of national origins, has not been regularly collated with thoſe of the adjacent countries.*

[3] Symes's Account of the embaſſy to Ava, ii. 411.

* See vol. vi. of the Aſiatic Reſearches.

The

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

The progreſſive geography of this territory becomes not a little intereſting, as it has lately been ſhewn by M. Goſſellin to conſtitute the utmoſt boundary of ancient knowledge in this quarter of the globe.* He obſerves that what chiefly characterizes the Golden Cherſoneſe of Ptolemy is the mouth of a large river, which there divides itſelf into three branches before it join the ſea. Theſe channels appeared ſo conſiderable that each of them bore the name of a river, the Chryſoana, the Palandas, and the Attabas. It muſt be remarked that Ptolemy gives no name to this river above its diviſion; and that he does not indicate its ſource as he does that of the others. It alſo appears that he knew nothing of the interior of this country, ſince he does not determine the poſition of any place. It was inhabited by a nation of robbers, whence the paſſage through it was ſhunned, and the Indians, whom commerce led to the country of the Sinæ, followed a route to the north of this region. The other arguments of M. Goſſellin, being founded on minute circumſtances, ſhall be paſſed in ſilence; but upon comparing Ptolemy's map with that of the country, there ſeems no manner of doubt that the Golden Cherſoneſe is the ſouthern part of the kingdom of Pegu, which may be conſidered as inſulated by rivers. In the ſouthern part of the Malaian peninſula, which has hitherto been regarded as the Golden Cherſoneſe, the river Johr is ſo ſmall a ſtream, that it could never have ſupplied the three important mouths noted by Ptolemy; and his delineation of the country of the Sinæ, ſtretching along a *weſtern* ſea, palpably correſponds with Tanaſerim, while D'Anville's map ſo much contradicts that of Ptolemy, as to place the ſea on the *eaſt* of the Sinæ, and proceeding to the *northward*, inſtead of the *ſouthward*. In ſhort there is no doubt that though our ingenious French geographer in a ſubſequent work too much limited the ancient knowledge of Africa,* yet in deſcribing its Aſiatic limits his proofs almoſt amount to mathematical demonſtration. Additional advantages might indeed have been derived from that truly eminent geographer Mr. Dalrymple's map of India beyond the Ganges, of which a ſketch is pub-

* Geograph. des Grecs Analyſ. 139.

* Recherches ſur la Geographie des Anciens, 2 vols. 4to. The volumes relative to the ancient knowledge of Europe, if they have appeared, have not yet reached England.

Progressive Geography.

liſhed in Colonel Syme's work, and from the additional labours of Mr. Arrowſmith which give a different aſpect to the rivers in this quarter, from what they bore in maps in 1790, when Goſſellin publiſhed his Analyſis of Greek Geography. As the river Berhampoota was totally unknown to Ptolemy, his ignorance of the northern part of Bengal may eaſily be conceived by the omiſſion of that important and ſtriking feature. The rivers he lays down between the mouths of the Ganges, and the Delta of the Golden Cherſoneſe, amount to five; of which three appear in our maps, but we are ignorant of the ſouthern part of Aracan, which probably contains the two others. The three chief mouths of the Irrawaddy, in Mr. Dalrymple's map, faithfully correſpond, even in the form and manner of diviſion, with thoſe in the Golden Cherſoneſe of Ptolemy; and the bay to the ſouth of Dalla ſeems the Perimulicus Sinus of the Greek geographer, the ſmall river to the eaſt of which is that of Sirian, or Pegu. It will follow that the large river Daona is that of Sitang: and the other ſix rivers, great and ſmall, might be equally indicated down to the Coteiris of Ptolemy, that of Tanaſerim in modern maps, which flowed to the ſouth of the Sinæ. It is alſo evident that the ancient geographer knew nothing of the ſtraits of Malacca, nor of the northern part of the great iſland of Sumatra; which muſt both have been well known, if the Malaian peninſula had been the Golden Cherſoneſe of the ancients.

The iſle of Iabadium M. Goſſellin ſuppoſes to be that called Dommel in modern maps; but by D'Anville, in the Portugueſe form, *Ilha do Mel.*

A curious queſtion remains, whether the people to the ſouth of Martaban, along the ſhore towards Merghi, be noted in Hindoo tradition for ſuch advantages as diſtinguiſhed the Sinæ of antiquity; while the city of Tanaſerim (a word which means the tribe of Tana) correſponded with Thinæ. The violence of oriental revolutions will ſpeedily ruin even the remains of former opulence, as is exemplified in the preſent ſtate of Pegu; but as even when D'Anville publiſhed his map of Aſia this country was called Lower Siam, it muſt have partaken in the advantages of that ancient and civilized kingdom, the inhabitants of which are juſtly concluded to have been the Sinæ of antiquity.

After

Progressive Geography.

After this long diſcuſſion it may ſeem unneceſſary to dwell on any faint and dubious hints to be found in Marco Polo, and other writers of the middle ages. The firſt preciſe ideas concerning this part of the globe were derived from the diſcoveries of the Portugueſe, but the geography remains ſo imperfect that even D'Anville has erred in the delineation; and Mr. Syme's work leaves room for many illuſtrations and improvements, when future travellers ſhall inveſtigate with care the countries beyond the Ganges.*

Modern Hiſtory.

The hiſtory of the Birman empire is detailed at ſome length in the introductory part of the recent publication; and as it diſplays the origin of a new and great Aſiatic power it may be intereſting to preſent an abſtract. Colonel Symes juſtly obſerves that little was known concerning theſe countries, till the Portugueſe made themſelves maſters of Malacca early in the ſixteenth century, and were afterwards ſucceeded by the Dutch, who became maſters of the whole peninſula, and had a factory even at Ligor, which properly belonged to Siam. The Portugueſe hiſtorians are prone to exaggeration, and their accounts have little claim to preciſion, while the Dutch are commonly dull and unſcientific. From ſuch ſources however flowed the firſt knowledge of theſe countries, of Aracan, extending ſouthward to cape Negrais, and of Ava, the ancient capital of the Birmans, while their country at large is called Miama, being divided from the former by a ridge of lofty mountains, called Anoupec-tou-miou, or the great weſtern hilly country. Pegu, or Bagoo extended as far as Martaban, the city of Prome being its northern limit; while Siam adjoined on the eaſt, extending ſouth to Junkſeilon a conſiderable iſle, the Siameſe calling themſelves Tai, while their capital was Yoodia.† From the Portugueſe accounts it appears that the Birmans, a brave and warlike race, formerly ſubject to the king of Pegu, became afterwards maſters of Ava, and cauſed a revolution in the former country about the middle of the ſixteenth century, when they took Martaban, a ſubject of the extrava-

* The French intercourſe with Siam, towards the end of the ſeventeenth century, occaſioned many deſcriptions of that kingdom; but the accounts of Ava and Pegu are rare. There is one of Tunquin and Laos, tranſlated from the Italian of Marini, Paris 1663, 4to.

† Alſo called Siam. As the *j* is in many countries pronounced *y*, (the real Oriental form) this name became the Juthea of travellers.

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gant fables of the notorious Mendez de Pinto, the ſovereign of hyperbolic voyagers. The Portugueſe continued to influence theſe countries till they were expelled by the Dutch, who obtained ſettlements in various parts of the Birman territory; while the Engliſh had factories at Sirian, and even at Ava.

The Birmans continued to exerciſe their ſupremacy over Pegu till about the year 1740, when a civil war aroſe, during which the Britiſh factory at Sirian was deſtroyed in 1744. By ſome European aids the Pegueſe, in 1750 and 1751, gained ſeveral victories over the Birmans; and in 1752 Ava was beſieged and taken; the laſt of a long line of Birman kings being reduced to captivity, but two of his ſons eſcaped to Siam.

When Binga Della, king of Pegu, had completed the conqueſt of Ava, he returned to his own country, leaving his brother Apporaza to govern the late capital of the Birman king. All wore the aſpect of tranquil ſubmiſſion, when there ſuddenly aroſe one of thoſe men who are deſtined, by means almoſt inviſible, to break the ſtrongeſt rod of power, and to change the fate of empires. Alompra, a Birman of low extraction, was the chief of a ſmall village, and was continued in this petty office by the victors. With one hundred devoted followers he attacked a band of fifty Pegueſe, whom he put to the ſword; and afterwards defeated a ſmall force ſent againſt him; and, about the autumn of 1753, took poſſeſſion of Ava, while the Pegueſe government ſeems to have been loſt by mere infatuation. After repeated defeats Binga Della himſelf advanced againſt Alompra, and the war was conducted by fleets on the great river Irrawady, as well as by land, that of the Pegueſe being utterly defeated in cloſe combat by that of the Birmans. Alompra, proceeding in his conqueſts, founded the town now well known by the name of Rangoon, which ſignifies "victory atchieved;" and ſoon after chaſtiſed the people of Caſſay, who had revolted from the Birman authority. In 1756 he blockaded Sirian, which yielded to his arms; and after having deprived the capital of any foreign aid by water, he advanced againſt the city of Pegu, ſituated on an extenſive plain, and then ſurrounded with no mean fortifications, while the ſtupendous pagoda of Shomadoo ſerved as a citadel. This capital was inveſted

veſted in January 1757, and in about three months became a prey to the Birmans. Alompra then proceeded to ſubdue the countries to the eaſtward, as far as the Three Pagodas, the ancient boundary between Pegu and Siam. Tavoy has been ſince added to the Birman poſſeſſions in this quarter.

Alompra next determined to chaſtiſe the Siameſe, for the encouragement they had given to his rebellious ſubjects, and ordered a fleet to ſail to Merghi, a ſea port belonging to the Siameſe, which was eaſily taken, and was followed by the conqueſt of Tanaſerim, a large and populous city.

The victor next advanced againſt the capital of Siám; but two days after the ſiege had commenced Alompra was ſeized with a deadly diſeaſe, which ſaved the Siameſe from deſtruction. He died, within two days march of Martaban, about the 15th May, 1760, regretted by his people, who at once venerated him as their deliverer, and as a great and victorious monarch. This founder of the Birman empire had not completed his fiftieth year; his perſon, ſtrong and well proportioned, exceeded the middle ſize; and though his features were coarſe, his complexion dark, and his countenance ſaturnine, there was a dignity in his deportment that became his high ſtation, and which, like that of Oliver Cromwell, ſeems to ſpring from conſcious power.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Namdogee, who ſuppreſſed ſeveral inſurrections, and died in 1764, leaving an infant ſon, Momien, whoſe uncle Shembuen, ſecond ſon of the great Alompra, aſſumed the regency and afterwards the diadem.

Shembuen, to divert the national attention, as uſual with uſurpers, declared war againſt Siam; and in 1766 two armies entered that country from the N. and S. and, being united, defeated the Siameſe about ſeven days journey from their capital. The Siameſe king privately withdrew after a blockade of two months, and the city capitulated; a Siameſe governor being appointed who ſwore allegiance to the Birman ſovereignty, and engaged to pay an annual tribute.

The Chineſe, apprehenſive of the progreſs of theſe conqueſts, advanced an army from the province of Yunan, but were completely defeated by the Birmans. Policy ſpared the captives, who were in-

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vited to marry Birman wives, the Hindoo prejudices being here unknown. Shembuen rebuilt Awa Haung, or ancient Ava, the metropolis of the empire which had fallen to ruin during the late commotions. The Siamese, though vanquished, remained unsubdued; and there is an inveterate enmity betwixt the nations, which will prevent either servitude or alliance.[5] A Siamese prince assumed the monarchy, and in 1771 defeated the Birmans. Shembuen afterwards turned his arms to the west, and forced the raja of Cachar to pay homage to his power. He died at Ava in 1776, and was succeeded by his son Chenguza, whose tyrannical conduct occasioned a conspiracy, at the head of which was Shembuen Minderagee, the present monarch, younger brother of the deceased Shembuen. Chenguza was slain in 1782.

Soon after Minderagee withdrew the seat of government from Ava, and founded a new city to the N. E. where there is a deep and extensive lake called Tounzemaun, formed by the influx of the river, during the monsoon, through a narrow channel, which afterwards expands to a mile and a half broad, by seven or eight miles in length. Between this lake and the river Irrawady stands the new capital Ummerapoora, constructed of wood, but which has speedily become one of the most flourishing cities in the east, the situation being more strong than that of Ava.

The southern conquests of the Birmans had already extended as far as Merghi, and the northern provinces, formerly belonging to Siam, had been reduced to subjection and tribute. Minderagee determined to pass the mountains of Anoupec, and subdue Aracan, the raja, or prince being of a supine character, and his subjects unwarlike, though they had never been reduced to pay homage to any foreign power. This conquest was commenced in 1783, and was speedily effected, the booty most highly valued, being an image of Gaudma, the Boodh of the Hindoos, made of burnished brass.

After this conquest the Birman arms were again turned against Siam, and in 1785 a fleet was sent to subdue the isle of Junkseylon, which carries on considerable trade in ivory, and tin, and is the only remaining

[5] Symes, i. 171.

mart

mart of Siamese trade on this coast. Meeting with a repulse, the Birman monarch left his capital at the head of 30,000 men, with a train of 20 field pieces; but was defeated by the king of Siam, who, in his turn, failed in an invasion of the viceroyalty of Martaban, which comprehends Tavoy, Merghi, and all the Birman possessions to the south. In 1793 a treaty was ratified between the Birmans and Siamese, by which the latter ceded the western maritime towns as far S. as Merghi inclusive. But with this exception, and that of some northern provinces, the Siamese monarchy retains a considerable portion of its ancient fame. Hence it appears that the Birman empire can scarcely be computed to extend beyond the 102d degree of longitude, and that only in the part to the north of Siam. MODERN HISTORY.

CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Religion.— Laws.— Government.— Population — Army.— Navy.— Revenues.— Political Importance.

THE Birmans follow the worship of Hindostan, not as votaries of Brahma but as disciples of Boodh, which latter is admitted by Hindoos of all descriptions to be the ninth Avatar, or descent of the deity, in his capacity of preserver.[1] He reformed the doctrines contained in the Vedas, and severely censured the sacrifice of cattle, or even the depriving any being of life. By a singular transposition the name of Gotma, or Gaudma, who is said to have been a philosopher, about 500 years before Christ, and taught the religion of Boodh, is generally accepted for that of the divinity. This sect is said far to exceed in an- RELIGION.

[1] Symes, ii. 313.

Religion. tiquity the followers of Brahma, and ſeems more widely diffuſed, extending even to China, where Fo is ſaid to be the ſame with Boodh, who is alſo credibly ſuppoſed to be the Budz or Seaka of the Japaneſe. But when he is aſſerted to have been the Woden of the Goths, a ſtriking diſſonance appears between the peaceful author of happineſs, and the God of War. Even Sir William Jones has not eſcaped theſe viſionary ideas of antiquaries;* but where the imagination confounds, it is the buſineſs of judgment to diſcriminate. The Birmans of courſe believe in the tranſmigration of ſouls; after which the radically bad will be condemned to laſting puniſhment, while the good ſhall enjoy eternal happineſs in the mountain Meru. They eſteem mercy to be the chief attribute of the divinity.

Laws. The laws of the Birmans are inſeparable from their religion. The ſacred verſes or forgeries of Menu are illuſtrated by numerous commentaries of the Munis, or old philoſophers, and conſtitute the Dherma Saſtré, or body of law. Both the religion and laws proceeded originally from Ceylon, and paſſed through Aracan to Miama. "The Birman ſyſtem of juriſprudence is replete with ſound morality, and in my opinion is diſtinguiſhed above any other Hindoo commentary for perſpicuity and good ſenſe; it provides ſpecifically for almoſt every ſpecies of crime that can be committed, and adds a copious chapter of precedents and deciſions, to guide the inexperienced in caſes where there is doubt and difficulty. Trial by ordeal and imprecation are the only abſurd paſſages in the book; but on the ſubject of women it is to an European offenſively indecent; like the immortal Menu it tells the prince and the magiſtrate their duty, in language auſtere, manly, and energetic."[2]

Government. Though the form of government be deſpotic, yet the king conſults a council of ancient nobles. There are no hereditary dignities nor employments; but all honours and offices, on the demiſe of the poſſeſſor, revert to the crown. The *tſaloe*, or chain, is the badge of nobility, the number of ſtrings or diviſions denoting the rank of the perſon; being

* That great man embraced too wide a range for any human mind, and his deciſions in Hindoo learning have ſince often been found raſh and erroneous.

[2] Symes, ii. 326.

three,

three, ſix, nine, or twelve, while the king alone wears twenty-four. Rank is alſo denoted by the form and material of various articles in common uſe. GOVERNMENT.

The royal eſtabliſhment is arranged with minute attention. The queens and princes have the title of Praw, which, like the Latin Auguſtus, implies at once ſacred and ſupreme. The elder ſon of the monarch is ſtyled Engy Teekien. Next in rank to the princes are the Woongees, or chief miniſters of ſtate, (the name implying "bearer of the great burthen,") who are three or four in number, and form the ruling council of the nation, iſſuing mandates to the Maywoons or viceroys of the ſeveral provinces, and in fact governing the empire, under the king's pleaſure, whoſe will is abſolute. There are other inferior miniſters and ſecretaries, who have their diſtinct offices, ſo that the buſineſs of government is conducted with great regularity and preciſion.

"Of the population of the Birman dominions I could only form a concluſion from the information I received of the number of cities, towns, and villages in the empire; theſe I was aſſured by a perſon who might be ſuppoſed to know, and had no motive for deceiving me, amount to 8000, not including the recent addition of Arracan. If this be true, which I have no reaſon to doubt, and we ſuppoſe each town on an average to contain 300 houſes, and each houſe ſix perſons; the reſult will determine the population at 14,400,000. Few of the inhabitants live in ſolitary habitations: they moſtly form themſelves into ſmall ſocieties, and their dwellings thus collected compoſe their Ruas or villages; if therefore we reckon their numbers, including Arracan, at 17,000,000, the calculation may not be widely erroneous; I believe it rather falls ſhort of than exceeds the truth. After all, however, it is mere conjecture, as I have no better data for my guidance than what I have related."[3] Population.

Every man in the empire is liable to military ſervice, but the regular army is very inconſiderable. During war the viceroys raiſe one recruit from every two, three, or four houſes, which otherwiſe pay a fine of about 40l. ſterling.[4] The family of the ſoldier is detained as hoſtages; and in caſe of cowardice or deſertion ſuffer death, a truly tyrannic mode Army and Navy.

[3] Symes, ii. 352. [4] Ib. 358.

Army and Navy.

of ſecuring allegiance. The infantry are not regularly clothed, but are armed with muſkets and ſabres; while the cavalry carry ſpears, about ſeven or eight feet in length. The royal magazines are ſaid to contain about 20,000 miſerable firelocks. But the war boats form the chief military eſtabliſhment, conſiſting of about 500, formed out of the ſolid trunk of the teak tree,* the length being from 80 to 100 feet, but the breadth ſeldom exceeding eight. They carry from 50 to 60 rowers, the prow being ſolid, with a flat ſurface, on which a piece of ordnance is mounted. Each rower is provided with a ſword and lance; and there are 30 ſoldiers armed with muſkets. The attack is impetuous, and chiefly conducted by grappling; but the veſſels being low in the water, the greateſt danger is that of being run down by a larger boat ſtriking the broadſide. Their naval actions thus recall to remembrance thoſe of claſſical antiquity.

Revenues.

The revenue ariſes from one tenth of all produce, and of foreign goods imported; but the amount is uncertain. Yet as grants are commonly made in land or offices, and no money leaves the royal treaſury except in caſes of great emergency, it is ſuppoſed that the monarch poſſeſſes immenſe treaſures.

Political Importance and Relations.

The political importance and relations of the Birman empire may conſiderably influence the commerce of the eaſt, and may be conſidered as a barrier againſt the ambition of the Chineſe, who might perhaps be induced to extend their poſſeſſions in this quarter, and might, in co-operation with the native princes, endanger our poſſeſſions in Hindoſtan. Such is, however, the ſuperiority of European arms, that this event is little to be apprehended. But if the Birmans, as is not improbable, were to extend their authority over the whole of that part called India beyond the Ganges, they might, as being a moſt brave and determined nation, prove dangerous neighbours to our poſſeſſions in Bengal, eſpecially if ſo far advanced in policy as to co-operate with the weſtern princes of Hindoſtan. The temporary diſguſts therefore between the Britiſh and Chineſe ought not to induce us to forget

* The teak tree abounds in this empire though rare in Hindoſtan, and works as eaſily as the oak, but is ſaid to be more laſting. It muſt not be confounded with iron wood, which will turn the edge of an axe.

the

the greater danger from the Birmans, whoſe empire it cannot be our intereſt to enlarge, though policy will prevent our offering any open obſtruction. Political Importance, &c.

CHAPTER III.

Civil Geography.

Manners. — Language. — Literature. — Cities. — Edifices. — Manufactures. — Commerce.

THE general diſpoſition of the Birmans is ſtrikingly contraſted with that of the Hindoos, from whom they are ſeparated only by a narrow range of mountains, in many places admitting of an eaſy intercourſe.[1] "Notwithſtanding the ſmall extent of this barrier, the phyſical difference between the nations could ſcarcely be greater, had they been ſituated at the oppoſite extremities of the globe. The Birmans are a lively inquiſitive race, active, iraſcible, and impatient; the character of their Bengal neighbours is too well known as the reverſe to need any delineation; the unworthy paſſion of jealouſy, which prompts moſt nations of the eaſt to immure their women within the walls of an haram, and ſurround them with guards, ſeems to have ſcarcely any influence over the minds of this extraordinary and more liberal people. Birman wives and daughters are not concealed from the ſight of men, and are ſuffered to have as free intercourſe with each other, as the rules of European ſociety admit; but in other reſpects women have juſt reaſon to complain of their treatment; they are conſidered as not belonging to the ſame ſcale of the nation as men, and even the law ſtamps a degrading diſtinction between the ſexes; the evidence of a woman is not received as of equal weight with that of a man; and a woman is not Manners and Cuſtoms.

[1] Symes, ii. 383.

Manners and Customs.

ſuffered to aſcend the ſteps of a court of juſtice, but is obliged to deliver her teſtimony on the outſide of the roof. The cuſtom of ſelling their women to ſtrangers, which has before been adverted to, is confined to the loweſt claſſes of ſociety, and is perhaps oftener the conſequence of heavy pecuniary embarraſſment, than an act of inclination: it is not however conſidered as ſhameful, nor is the female diſhonoured, partly perhaps from this cauſe, and partly from their habits of education, women ſurrender themſelves the victims of this barbarous cuſtom with apparent reſignation. It is alſo ſaid that they are very ſeldom unfaithful to their foreign maſters; indeed they are often eſſentially uſeful, particularly to thoſe who trade, by keeping their accounts, and tranſacting their buſineſs; but when a man departs from the country he is not ſuffered to carry his temporary wife along with him; on that point the law is exceedingly rigorous, every ſhip, before ſhe receives her clearance, is diligently ſearched by the officers of the cuſtom-houſe: even if their vigilance were to be eluded the woman would be quickly miſſed; and it would be ſoon diſcovered in what veſſel ſhe had gone, nor could that ſhip ever return to a Birman port, but under penalty of confiſcation of the property, and the infliction of a heavy fine and impriſonment on the maſter: female children alſo, born of a Birman mother, are not ſuffered to be taken away. Men are permitted to emigrate: but they think that the expatriation of women would impoveriſh the ſtate, by diminiſhing the ſources of its population."[2]

The women though free are generally too much occupied in the labours of the loom to admit of infidelity, the offspring of idleneſs. In war the men diſplay the ferocity of ſavages, while in peace they can boaſt a conſiderable degree of gentleneſs and civilization. The Birman year compriſes twelve months of 29 or 30 days alternately, a month being interpoſed every third year. The ſubdiviſion of the month is peculiar, as they number the days not only from the new moon but from the full, which laſt is called the decreaſing moon. They are fond of poetry and muſic, and among their inſtruments is the heem, reſembling the ancient pipe of Pan, formed of ſeveral reeds neatly joined together,

[2] Symes, ii. 384.

and

and ſounded by a common mouth piece, ſo as to produce a plaintive melody. MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

The alphabet repreſents 33 ſimple ſounds, and is written from left to right like the European. The Birman books are more neatly executed than thoſe of the Hindoos, and in every *kioul*, or monaſtery, there is a library or repoſitory of books. Colonel Symes was ſurprized at the number contained in the royal library, in which the large cheſts probably amounted to 100.[4] "The books were regularly claſſed, and the contents of each cheſt were written in gold letters on the lid. The librarian opened two, and ſhewed me ſome very beautiful writing on their leaves of ivory, the margins of which were ornamented with flowers of gold, neatly executed. I ſaw alſo ſome books written in the ancient Palli, the religious text. Every thing ſeemed to be arranged with perfect regularity, and I was informed that there were books upon divers ſubjects; more on divinity than on any other; but hiſtory, muſic, medicine, painting, and romance had their ſeparate treatiſes. The volumes were diſpoſed under diſtinct heads, regularly numbered: and if all the other cheſts were as well filled as thoſe that were ſubmitted to our inſpection, it is not improbable that his Birman majeſty may poſſeſs a more numerous library than any potentate, from the banks of the Danube to the borders of China."[5] Language and Literature.

The ſtudy of the laws and national religion muſt of courſe conſtitute a conſiderable branch of education among the great; that of the poor ſeems to be utterly neglected.

Ava, the ancient capital, has been permitted to ſink into ruin ſince the recent foundation of Ummerapoora, on the eaſtern ſide of a great river which flows into the Irrawady if, in the imperfect geography of theſe countries, we regard the Keen-Duen as the chief ſtream, a ſuppoſition little countenanced by Mr. Wood's map, inſerted in Colonel Symes's account, in which the Keen-Duen is a ſmall river flowing into the Irrawady, which laſt is ſaid to paſs by the capital. On the oppoſite ſide of the river is Chagaing, once a city of imperial reſidence, ſeated partly at the foot and partly on the ſide of a rugged hill, broken into eminences, each of which is crowned by a ſpiral temple. Um- Cities.

[4] iii. 93. [5] Ib. 96.

merapoora

Cities. Ummerapoora.

merapoora the capital, with its ſpires, turrets, and lofty piaſath, or obeliſk, denoting the royal preſence, ſeems to riſe like Venice from the waters, being placed between a lake on the S. E. and the large river with numerous iſles on the N. W. The lake is called Tounzemahn, from a village on the oppoſite ſide, ornamented with tall groves of mango, palmyra, and cocoa trees. The number and ſingularity of the boats that were moored in the lake, and the ſurrounding amphitheatre of lofty hills, conſpired to render the ſcene grand and intereſting. The fort is an exact ſquare, with public granaries and ſtore rooms; and there is a gilded temple at each corner, nearly 100 feet in height, but far inferior to others in the vicinity of the capital. In the centre of this fort ſtands the royal palace, with a wide court in front, beyond which is the Lotoo, or hall of council, ſupported by 77 pillars, diſpoſed in eleven rows. The extent and population of this city have not been accurately ſtated, but are probably inconſiderable.

Ava.

Ava, formerly the capital, is alſo ſtyled Aungwa, but is in a ſtate of ruin. "The walls are now mouldering into decay, ivy clings to the ſides, and buſhes, ſuffered to grow at the bottom, undermine the foundation, and have already cauſed large chaſms in the different faces of the fort. The materials of the houſes conſiſting chiefly of wood had, on the firſt order for removing, been tranſported to the new city of Ummerapoora: but the ground, unleſs where it is covered with buſhes or rank graſs, ſtill retains traces of former buildings and ſtreets. The lines of the royal palace, of the Lotoo, or grand council hall, the apartments of the women, and the ſpot on which the Piaſath, or imperial ſpire had ſtood, were pointed out to us by our guide. Clumps of bamboos, a few plantain trees, and tall thorns occupy the greater part of the area of this lately flouriſhing capital. We obſerved two dwelling houſes of brick and mortar, the roofs of which had fallen in; theſe our guides ſaid had belonged to Colars, or foreigners; on entering one we found it inhabited only by bats, which flew in our faces, whilſt our ſenſe of ſmelling was offended by their filth, and by the noiſome mildew that hung upon the walls. Numerous temples, on which the Birmans never lay ſacrilegious hands, were delapidating by

time. It is impoſſible to draw a more ſtriking picture of deſolation and ruin."[6] Cities.

Pegu, formerly the capital of a kingdom, is alſo in ruins; but it appears to have been a quadrangle, each ſide meaſuring nearly a mile and a half. The wall muſt have been about 30 feet high, and in breadth at the baſe not leſs than 40; but only conſtructed of bricks, cemented with clay.[7] It was razed by Alompra in 1757, the Praws, or temples being ſpared; and of theſe the vaſt pyramid of Shomadoo has alone been reverenced, and kept in repair. The preſent Birman monarch has endeavoured to conciliate the Taliens, or native Pegueſe, by permitting them to rebuild their ancient city, within the ſite of which a new town has accordingly been reared; but Rangoon poſſeſſes ſo many ſuperior advantages that the merchants will ſcarcely abandon it for this new foundation. The city occupies about half its former extent, and is the reſidence of the Maywoon, or governor of Pegu. It is decorated with that extraordinary edifice the Shomadoo, ſeated on a double terrace, one ſide of the lower being 1391 feet, of the upper 684. The building is compoſed of brick and mortar, octagonal at the baſe, and ſpiral at the top, without any cavity or aperture. At the ſummit is a Tee, or ſacred umbrella, of open iron work gilt, 56 feet in circumference; the height of the whole being 361 feet, and above the inner terrace 331 feet. Tradition bears that it was founded about 500 years before Chriſt. A more complete idea of this very ſingular ediſice may be obtained from the print publiſhed by Colonel Symes, than any verbal deſcription can convey. Pegu.

One of the chief ports of the Birman empire is Rangoon, which, though like the capital, of recent foundation, is ſuppoſed to contain 30,000 ſouls. Towards the mouth of the river Pegu ſtands Sirian, formerly one of the chief ports of that kingdom, and of conſiderable commerce when in poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe. It was particularly celebrated for the export of rubies, and other precious ſtones, which ſeem however to be chiefly found in the northern mountains.

Martaban was another ſea port of conſiderable eminence, till the harbour was impeded by order of the Birman emperor. Of Tavoy and

[6] Symes. ii. 270. [7] Ib. ii. 51.

Merghi

Cities. Merghi little is known; but Tanaſerim maintains the dignity of a city.

The grand river of Irrawady is bordered with numerous towns and villages. Perſain, or Baſſien, ſtands on its weſtern branch. At a conſiderable diſtance to the north is Prome, celebrated as the ſcene of many long ſieges and bloody conflicts. The number of inhabitants exceeds that of Rangoon. Pagahm is alſo a conſiderable place. Nor muſt Aracan, a recent acquiſition, be forgotten, which is divided by ſeveral canals derived from a river of the ſame name.

Towards the Chineſe frontier are Quangtong, correſponding in name with the diſtant province called Canton by Europeans; Bamoo; and in the country of Caſſay, Munnipora. Monchaboo is a conſiderable town to the north of the capital.

Edifices. The moſt remarkable edifice is the Shomadoo before deſcribed. The Kioums are often of ſingularly rich and fantaſtic architecture, as may be obſerved in the delineation given by Colonel Symes; who has alſo publiſhed a view of the grand hall of audience, perhaps as ſplendid an edifice as can well be executed in wood. His reception at the "golden feet," ſuch is the term uſed for the imperial preſence, was alſo remarkably grand, the pomp in ſome degree correſponding with that of the ancient Byzantine emperors.

Inland Navigation. Nature has ſo amply provided the means of inland navigation, by the numerous mouths and ſtreams of the grand river Irrawady, that additional induſtry ſeems ſuperfluous.

Manufactures. The Birmans excel in gilding, and ſeveral other ornamental manufactures. Their edifices and barges are conſtructed with ſingular oriental taſte and elegance; and at Chagain is a manufacture of marble divinities, the material being remarkably fine and almoſt tranſparent.

Commerce. A conſiderable trade is carried on between the capital and Yunan, the neareſt province of China, conſiſting chiefly in cotton, with amber, ivory, precious ſtones, and beetle nut; the returns being raw and wrought ſilks, velvets, gold leaf, preſerves, paper, and ſome utenſils of hard ware. Several thouſand boats are annually employed in tranſporting rice from the lower provinces to ſupply Ummerapoora, and the northern diſtricts. Salt and gnapee, a kind of fiſh ſauce uſed with rice,

are alſo articles of internal commerce. European broad cloth and hard ware, coarſe Bengal muſlins, china ware, and glaſs, are imported by foreigners. The Birmans, like the Chineſe, have no coin: but ſilver in bullion, and lead, are current. COMMERCE.

CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seaſons.—Face of the Country.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Foreſts.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—ISLES.

THE vigorous health of the natives atteſts the ſalubrity of the climate, the ſeaſons being regular, and the extremes of heat and cold little known; for the intenſe heat which precedes the beginning of the rainy ſeaſon* is of ſhort duration. CLIMATE AND SEASONS.

The face of the country affords almoſt every variety, from the ſwampy Delta of the Irrawady to pleaſant hills and dales, and conſiderable ranges of mountains. "The ſoil of the ſouthern provinces of the Birman empire is remarkably fertile, and produces as luxuriant crops of rice as are to be found in the fineſt parts of Bengal. Farther northward the country becomes irregular and mountainous; but the plains and valleys, particularly near the river, are exceedingly fruitful; they yield good wheat, and the various kinds of ſmall grain which grow in Hindoſtan; as likewiſe legumes and moſt of the eſculent vegetables of India. Sugar canes, tobacco of a ſuperior quality, indigo, cotton, and the different tropical fruits in perfection, are all indigenous products of this favoured land."[1] Agriculture ſeems to be purſued with conſiderable avidity, but the mode has not been particularly illuſtrated. Face of the Country.

* See Hindoſtan.

[1] Symes, ii. 372.

Rivers. The chief river of the Birman empire is the Irrawady, ſuppoſed to be the Kenpou of Tibet, which, inſtead of being the river of Keen Duem, probably paſſes by Moguang to Bamoo, and thence by Ummerapoora and Prome towards the ſea, which it joins by many mouths, after a comparative courſe of near 1200 Britiſh miles. The Keen Duem ſeems to riſe in the mountains towards Aſam, being of much inferior ſize where it joins the Irrawady.

The river Sitang is the next on the eaſt, after paſſing the ſmall river of Pegu, but ſeems to be a kind of remote branch of the Irrawady.

The Thaluan enters the ſea near Martaban, being ſuppoſed to be the Nou Kiang of Tibet, which may with more probability be the river of Siam. In either caſe the length of its courſe exceeds that of the Irrawady, though not being fed by ſuch numerous ſtreams it cannot equal it in ſize. The river of Siam, or Maygue, alſo pervades a part of the Birman territory. The geography of all theſe rivers remains imperfect.

Dr. Buchanan obſerves in general, on the errors of former geographers, that the river of Arracan is not ſo conſiderable as has been ſuppoſed, but riſes in hills at no great diſtance to the north, having been confounded with the Keen Duem, or great weſtern branch of the Irrawady; while what is called the weſtern branch of that river is in fact the eaſtern.[2] His aſſertion that the Loukiang or Noukiang of D'Anville is the ſame with the Thaluan, ſeems liable to doubt. He adds that the river of Pegu, formerly ſuppoſed to come from China, riſes among hills about 100 miles from the ſea, which form the boundary between the Birman and Pegu kingdoms: that between the rivers of Pegu and Martaban there is a lake from which two rivers proceed, one running N. to old Ava, where it joins a river that flows into the Irrawady, while the other paſſes S. to the ſea, being the Sitang: that the rivers of China, which were ſuppoſed to be the ſources of that of Pegu, are thoſe of the river of Siam; and that the latter communicates with that of Cambodia by a large branch called the Anan.*

It

[2] Symes, ii. 413.

* D'Anville, in his map of Aſia, has ſuppoſed the Sanpou, or Berhampooter, to be the ſame with the river of Ava or the Irrawady. The Nou Kiang he imagines the ſame with the river of Pegu;

It would appear that there muſt be numerous lakes in this empire, which abounds with mountains; but the imperfect ſtate of its geography has ſupplied no materials for their deſcription. Lakes.

It is probable that the higheſt range of mountains is on the frontiers of Tibet. The other ranges are delineated as paſſing N and S, but the names are not indicated, except thoſe of Anoupec, between Ava and Arracan, and a ſmall range running E and W, which ſupplies the ſources of the river of Pegu. Mountains.

The foreſts are large and numerous, many parts remaining in a ſtate of nature. They ſupply almoſt every deſcription of timber that is known in Hindoſtan; and, about four days journey to the N. of the capital, firs grow in abundance. But the lord of the Birman foreſt is the teak tree, ſuperior to the European oak, which is there unknown: the teak flouriſhes in many parts of the empire, to the N. of the capital as well as to the S. Foreſts.

All the countries that compoſe the rich and extenſive territory of India beyond the Ganges, including the Birman empire, and the dominions of Pegu, Siam, Cambodia, Cochin-China, and Malacca, bear ſuch a ſimilarity to each other in their vegetable productions as far as they have been inveſtigated, as renders it impoſſible to give a general and ſeparate view of their reſpective floras without continual repetitions. Certain diſtricts alſo in further India have been examined with conſiderable attention, while others ſimilarly ſituated have remained almoſt wholly overlooked: it is only therefore from analogy (a highly probable one indeed) that we can conjecture the moſt characteriſtic ſpecies of their indigenous plants. The mountains of the interior, and in general the whole northern frontier, are ſtill totally unexplored, and the deep foreſts infeſted with tigers, muſt ever continue, even in the more acceſſible parts, to oppoſe no trifling obſtacles to the ſpirit of ſcientific adventure. Botany.

It is in thoſe parts of the torrid zone that abound with water, and where, from the influence of the monſoons, the country is extenſively

Pegu: while the large river of Siam is ſuppoſed to have a comparatively ſhort courſe. Such are the groſs errors of this eminent geographer, whoſe work Mr. Gibbon pronounces to be perfect, while in fact they only ſhew the very imperfect ſtate of geography even in his time.

Botany. flooded every year, that vegetation aſſumes a vigour and ſublimity wholly inconceivable by the native of more temperate climates: everlaſting verdure, grace, and majeſty of form, height and amplitude of growth, are the diſtinguiſhing attributes of their trees, compared with which the monarchs of our foreſts ſink into vegetables of an inferior order: the ſame exuberance of nature is conſpicuous in their ſhrubs and herbaceous plants, in their bloſſoms and their fruits, whoſe vivid brilliancy of colour, ſingularity of ſhape, aromatic fragrance, and exalted flavour, reduce to relative inſignificance the puny produce of European ſummers.

Here riſes in proud magnificence the white ſandal tree, whoſe fragrant wood, mixed with that of the aloëxylum verum, alſo a native of theſe regions, is in high requeſt through the whole eaſt for the grateful odour of its ſmoak. The teak tree (tectona theca) is at leaſt equal even to Britiſh oak as a durable material for ſhipbuilding: the true jet black ebony wood is the produce of the ebenoxylum verum, one of the indigenous trees of Cochin China. The ſycamore fig, the Indian fig, and the banyan tree itſelf a grove, by the breadth of their leaves and the luxuriance of their foliage, afford a moſt delicious ſhelter, impenetrable even by the meridian ardour of an Indian ſun. Mingled with theſe, and emulating them in ſize, are the bignonia indica, the nauclea orientalis, corypha ſeribus, one of the loftieſt of the palm trees, and excoecaria Cochinchinenſis, remarkable for the crimſon under ſurface of its leaves.

Of the plants that are uſed in medicine or the arts ſome of the moſt important are natives of further India: the nature of this work does not admit of ſpecifying the whole, but thoſe of moſt conſequence are the following. The ginger and cardamom, two pleaſant aromatics, are found wild on the river ſides, but are alſo cultivated in great abundance; the turmeric, whoſe principal uſe in Europe is as a dying drug, is largely uſed by the natives of the coaſt to tinge and flavour their rice and other food: the leaves of the betel pepper, with the fruit of the black and long pepper, and the fagaria piperita, are the moſt favourite of their native ſpices, to which may alſo be added three or four kinds of capſicum. Among the various dying drugs may be diſtinguiſhed juſticia

tinctoria, yielding a beautiful green tinge; morinda umbellata, gamboge and carthamus, all of them yellow dyes, the red wood of the lawsonia spinosa and Cæsalpinia sappan, and the indigo; the gum resin called dragon's blood appears to be produced by several species of plants, and two of these, the dracæna ferrea and calamus rotang, are natives of Cochin-China. The bark of the nerium antidysentericum, called codagapala, and that of the laurus culilavan, the fruit of the strychnos nux-vomica, the cassia fistula, the tamarind, and the croton tiglium, the inspissated juice of the aloe, the resin of the camphor tree, and the oil of the ricinus, are all occasionally imported from this country for the European dispensaries. The cinnamon laurel grows in abundance on each side of the Malayan peninsula, and sometimes, as it is said, accompanied by the nutmeg. The sugar cane, the bamboo, and the spikenard, the three most celebrated plants of the grass tribe, are found throughout the whole country; the two former in rich swamps, and the latter on dry hills. The sweet potatoe, ipomæa tuberosa, mad-apple and love-apple (solanum melongena and lycopersicon), nymphæa nelumbo, gourds, melons, water melons, and a profusion of other esculent plants, enrich this favoured country; all these however require cultivation: but the plantain, the cocoa nut, and sago palm, furnished by the free unstinted bounty of nature, contribute most plentifully to satisfy the wants of the inhabitants. Of native fruits they possess a vast variety and an inexhaustible abundance. The vine grows wild in the forests, but from the excessive heat and want of cultivation its fruit is far inferior to that of the south of Europe: to compensate however for this deficiency, they have the luscious mango, the pine apple, the sapindus edulis (the li-tschi of the Chinese), the mangosteen plum (garcinia mangostana), the averrhoa carambola, the custard apple, the papaw fig, the orange, the lemon and lime, and a multitude of other exquisite fruits, whose very names are scarcely known in Europe. The attempt to give even a very faint idea by words of the infinite multitude of ornamental plants that cover the country would be wholly in vain; a few have been introduced into our hot-houses, where they continue a languid imperfect existence, and of which, faded and sickly as they are, they constitute the chief glory. BOTANY.

The

Zoology. The animals in general correſpond with thoſe of Hindoſtan. Elephants principally abound in Pegu. The horſes are ſmall, but ſpirited. The ichneumon, or rat of Pharaoh, is rather peculiar. A kind of wild fowl called the henza, and by the Hindoos the braminy gooſe, has been adopted as the ſymbol of the empire, like the Roman eagle. The Birmans abſtain from animal food except game; but there are many buffaloes.

Mineralogy. The mineralogy of this region, the Golden Cherſoneſe of the ancients, is opulent, and ſome products rather ſingular. While Malacca, which has hitherto been ſuppoſed the Golden Cherſoneſe, ſcarcely produces any mineral except tin, and is in truth a poor country, only celebrated as an emporium of Portugueſe trade with China, the rivers of Pegu, on the contrary, ſtill continue to devolve particles of gold; and their ſands muſt in ancient times have been yet more prolific of that precious metal. Nor is it improbable that the practice of gilding the roofs and ſpires of temples and palaces may aſcend to ancient times, as we are told that the Shomadoo was built about 500 years before the Chriſtian era; in which caſe the ſplendid appearance might naturally give riſe to the claſſical appellation of the country. Colonel Symes informs us that "gold is diſcovered in the ſandy beds of ſtreams which deſcend from the mountains. Between the Keen Duem and the Irrawady, to the northward, there is a ſmall river called Sho Lien Kioup, or the Stream of Golden Sand."[3] In many regions gold is found intermingled with ſilver; and ſix days journey from Bamoo (probably towards the north) there are mines of gold and ſilver at Badouem, near the frontiers of China. By a ſingular conjunction, there are, according to the ſame authority, mines of gold, ſilver, rubies, and ſapphires, at preſent open on a mountain called Wooboloo-taun, near the river Keen Duem.

There is alſo abundance of inferior minerals, as tin, iron, lead, antimony, arſenic, and ſulphur; and amber, a rare and ſingular product, is not only dug up in large quantities near the river Irrawady, but is uncommonly pure and pellucid.

[3] ii. 375.

Diamonds

Diamonds and emeralds are not found in the Birman empire; but it affords amethyſts, garnets, very beautiful chryſolites of a greeniſh yellow; with the inferior products of jaſper, loadſtone, and marble, the quarries of the latter, which equals the beſt Carara, being only a few miles from Ummerapoora. MINERALOGY.

The moſt ſingular product of Pegu is the ruby, a ſtone next to the diamond in value, and which, according to Sheldon, is found in a mountain between Sirian and Pegu, this ſubſtance being almoſt as peculiar as the diamond is to Hindoſtan. By Colonel Symes's account, rubies and ſapphires are alſo found in the north weſtern part of the empire; but the moſt valuable mines are in the vicinity of the capital, or rather about 30 Britiſh miles to the north.

The Birmans ſeem to be in poſſeſſion of ſeveral iſles in the gulph of Martaban, the Magnus Sinus of antiquity, and of others to the ſouth and weſt, but too minute to demand deſcription, if there even were ſufficient materials.* ISLES.

* See Forreſt's Voyage from Calcutta to the Archipelago of Mergui, 4to.

MALAYA OR MALACCA.

Progreſſive Geography.—Name and Extent.—Language.—Diviſions.—Products. City of Malacca.—General Remarks on the Malays.—Iſles of Andaman and Nicobar.

HAVING thus finiſhed the deſcription of the chief native empires of Aſia, a foreign power, that of the Engliſh in Hindoſtan, will naturally attract the next attention, as perhaps not unequal in real and effective force even to the greateſt of theſe empires. While the Engliſh colonies in America claim a decided preponderance over any power on that continent, it is not a little ſurprizing to behold the natives of a remote European iſle exerciſing ſuch ſway in Aſia, and influencing the councils of the moſt remote potentates. The colony eſtabliſhed in New Holland is alſo a ſtriking and ſingular feature in human hiſtory; and will probably ſecure laſting aſcendancy in a region before unknown. Were Egypt to yield to the Britiſh arms, it might be aſſerted that the Engliſh name is pre-eminent in every quarter of the globe.* Such are the fruits of national freedom, the parent of induſtry and enterprize.

But as the Britiſh empire in Hindoſtan only embraces a comparatively ſmall part of that extenſive region, indiſſolubly connected with the others by identity of population, manners, and laws, it ſeems preferable to follow a plan merely geographical in deſcribing the remaining ſtates of Aſia; and after completing the account of thoſe beyond the Ganges, to proceed to Hindoſtan, Perſia, and Arabia.

* This event has ſince happened—but Egypt is reſigned to Turkiſh barbariſm.

In

In the ſame view of geographical connection, where the political weight of the ſtate deſerves little conſideration, either from power or durability, it will be proper, after the preceding deſcription of the Birman territories, to ſubjoin ſome account of that peninſula appended to them on the ſouth, and ſtyled Malaya or Malacca.

This Cherſoneſe was certainly unknown to the ancients, and ſeems to have eſcaped the knowledge of Marco Polo, though the iſle of Sumatra appears to have been known to him by the name of Java Minor, if this be not his Maletur, where he ſays there was abundance of ſpices, and the natives had a proper and peculiar ſpeech.* Progreſſive Geography.

However this be, the Portugueſe are regarded as the firſt diſcoverers of Malacca, to which they were led by the vain idea of finding the golden Cherſoneſe of the ancients. When Sequeira reached this peninſula in 1509, he found it ſubject to Mahmud, a Mahometan prince; while the capital, Malacca, had acquired ſome conſideration from its favourable poſition, as a mart of trade between China and Hindoſtan. In 1511 the Portugueſe conquered the peninſula.

The name is derived from the Malays, who are moſtly Mahometans, and in ſome degree civilized; but the inland parts ſeem to be poſſeſſed by a more rude native race, little known amidſt the imperfection of materials concerning this country, neither the Portugueſe nor Dutch being eminent in ſcientific preciſion. The northern limits are not ſtrictly defined; but Malacca is about 8°, or near 560 Britiſh miles in length, by about 150 miles of medial breadth, a territory ſufficiemtly ample for a powerful monarchy, had its native productions correſponded with its extent. Name. Extent.

As the Malays have eſtabliſhed ſeveral governments in Sumatra, the beſt ideas concerning them may be derived from Mr. Marſden's hiſtory of that iſle. Their language has been called the Italian of the eaſt, from the melody of frequent vowels and liquids; and the above intelligent traveller has produced the following ſpecimen : Language.

* See in the account of the Aſiatic iſlands a note on this ſubject. Some may imagine that his Boeach or Loeach is perhaps *Levek* or Camboja (D'Anville's Aſia). But it ſeems more probable that *Boeach* is the northern part of Malacca, and *Maletur* the ſouthern: for his *Garſinius* is the S. W. point, and *Sciroccus* the S. E.

Language.

Apo goono paſſang paleeto
Callo teedah dangan ſoomboonia?
Apo goono bermine matto
Callo teedah dangan ſoongoonia?

What ſignifies attempting to light a lamp
If the wick be wanting?
What ſignifies making love with the eyes,
If nothing in earneſt be intended?

The Malays uſe the Arabic character; and an influx of words of that language has followed the adoption of the Mahometan religion.* They write on paper, uſing ink of their own compoſition, and pens made of the twigs of a tree. The pureſt Malay is ſtill ſuppoſed to be ſpoken in the peninſula, and has no inflexion of nouns or verbs.

Diviſions.

Though the manners and cuſtoms of the Malays be deeply tinctured with thoſe common to other Mahometans, yet in the inland parts of the country the people remain nearly in a ſavage ſtate, and do not partake of the civilization of the adjacent kingdoms of Pegu and Siam. In the laſt century Mandelſlo, or rather Olearius, who publiſhed his voyage,

Patani.

deſcribes Malacca as divided into two kingdoms, that of Patani in the north, and that of Yohor or Jor in the ſouth.[1] The town of Patani was inhabited by Malays and Siameſe; and the people were Mahometans tributary to Siam. The town is built of reeds and wood, but the moſk of brick; and the commerce was conducted by the Chineſe and the Portugueſe ſettlers, the native Malays being chiefly employed in fiſhing and agriculture. According to this traveller there are continual rains with a N. E. wind during the months of November, December, and January. Agriculture was conducted with oxen and buffaloes, the chief product being rice. There was abundance of game and fruits, and the foreſts ſwarmed with monkeys, tigers, wild boars, and wild elephants. From the kingdom of Patani the Portugueſe uſed yearly to purchaſe about 1500 cattle for their ſettlement at Malacca.

* Hence Thunberg, ii. 228. has ridiculouſly ſuppoſed the Malay to be a dialect of the Arabic. It is of Sanſcrit origin. Aſ. Reſ. iv. 217.

[1] Vol. i. col. 338. edit. 1727. 2 vols. fol.

The

The kingdom of Yohor occupied the ſouthern extremity of the Cherſoneſe, the chief towns being Linga, Bintam, Carimon, and Batuſaber ;[2] which laſt was the capital of the kingdom, being ſituated about ſix leagues from the ſea on the river Yohor, in a marſhy ſituation, ſo that the ſmall houſes were obliged to be raiſed about eight feet from the ground. All the country belonging to the king, lands were aſſigned to any perſon who demanded them, but the Malays were ſo indolent that the country was chiefly left to the wild luxuriance of nature. Even in the time of this traveller the Malayan language was eſteemed the moſt melodious in the eaſt, and as univerſal as the French in Europe, a remark which has been recently repeated by Thunberg. Diviſions. Yohor.

The inland part of the Malayan peninſula ſeems to remain full of extenſive aboriginal foreſts ; nor do the ancient or modern maps indicate any towns or villages in theſe parts. The indolence of the inhabitants has prevented the country from being explored ; but it produces pepper, and other ſpices, with ſome precious gums and woods, among which perhaps the teak may be found. The wild elephants ſupply abundance of ivory ; but the tin, the only mineral mentioned, may perhaps be the produce of Banka.* If gold or diamonds had exiſted, they could not have eſcaped the avarice of the Dutch ; and we may reſt aſſured this country could never have been the Golden Cherſoneſe of the ancients. Products.

The form of the Malay government may be conceived from thoſe tranſplanted to Sumatra, and deſcribed by Mr. Marſden.[3] The titles of the ſultans or rajas are numerous and fantaſtic. Next in rank are a kind of nobles, who in Sumatra are called Dattoos, to whom the others are vaſſals.

The city of Malacca, which ſeems to have been founded by Mahometans in the thirteenth century, was held by the Portugueſe till 1641, when it was ſeized by the Dutch. It was conſidered as ſituated in the Malacca City.

[2] Col. 342.

* Yet Mr. Pennant, View of Hindoſtan, iii. 30, aſſerts from the authority of Hamilton, who viſited this country in 1719, that much gold is found in the river which runs from near the city of Malacca towards the eaſtern coaſt.

[3] 267. 283.

Malacca City.

ſouthern kingdom of Yohor; and in the laſt century was ſuppoſed to contain 12,000 inhabitants, of which however only 3000 dwelled within the walls. Not above 300 were native Portugueſe, the others being a mixed race of Mahometan Malays, accounted among the chief merchants of the eaſt. The Portugueſe ſettlement did not extend above five leagues around; yet became highly important from its advantageous poſition for Indian and Chineſe commerce.[4]

The mean and diſgraceful jealouſy of the Dutch concerning their oriental poſſeſſions renders the recent accounts of this city imperfect.

Malays.

In general the Malays are a well made people, though rather below the middle ſtature, their limbs well ſhaped, but ſmall, and particularly ſlender at the wriſts and ancles. Their complexion is tawney, their eyes large, their noſes ſeem rather flattened by art than nature; and their hair is very long, black, and ſhining.

Beſides the tiger and elephant, Malacca produces the civet cat deſcribed by Sonnerat, who alſo mentions that wild men are found in this peninſula, perhaps the noted Orang Outangs. Some ſingular birds are alſo found; and Malacca likewiſe produces a moſt delicious fruit called the mangoſten.

In imitation of Mr. Pennant,[5] this account ſhall be cloſed with a few extracts from M. le Poivre's philoſophical voyages, that judicious obſerver having given a more juſt idea of the Malays than any other traveller.

"Beyond the kingdom of Siam is the peninſula of Malacca, a country formerly well peopled, and conſequently well cultivated. This nation was once one of the greateſt powers, and made a very conſiderable figure, in the theatre of Aſia. The ſea was covered with their ſhips, and they carried on a moſt extenſive commerce. Their laws however were apparently very different from thoſe which ſubſiſt among them at preſent. From time to time they ſent out numbers of colonies, which one after another peopled the iſlands of Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Celebez or Macaſſar, the Moluccas, the Philippines, and thoſe innumerable iſlands of the Archipelago which bound Aſia on the eaſt,

[4] Mandelſlo, i. Col. 337.

[5] Outlines of the Globe. London, 1800. 4 vol. 4to. iii 33.

and

and which occupy an extent of 700 leagues in longitude from E. to W. by about 600 of latitude from N. to S. The inhabitants of all theſe iſlands, thoſe at leaſt upon the coaſts, are the ſame people. They ſpeak almoſt the ſame language, have the ſame laws, the ſame manners. Is it not ſomewhat ſingular that this nation, whoſe poſſeſſions are ſo extenſive, ſhould ſcarce be known in Europe? I ſhall endeavour to give you an idea of thoſe laws and thoſe manners; you will from thence eaſily judge of their agriculture. Malays.

"Travellers who make obſervations on the Malays, are aſtoniſhed to find in the centre of Aſia, under the ſcorching climate of the line, the laws, the manners, the cuſtoms, and the prejudices, of the ancient inhabitants of the north of Europe. The Malays are governed by feudal laws, that capricious ſyſtem conceived for the defence of the liberty of a few againſt the tyranny of one, whilſt the multitude is ſubjected to ſlavery and oppreſſion.

"A chief, who has the title of king or ſultan, iſſues his commands to his great vaſſals, who obey when they think proper; theſe have inferior vaſſals, who often act in the ſame manner with regard to them. A ſmall part of the nation live independent, under the title of *Oramcai* or noble, and ſell their ſervices to thoſe who pay them beſt; whilſt the body of the nation is compoſed of ſlaves, and lives in perpetual ſervitude.

"With theſe laws the Malays are reſtleſs, fond of navigation, war, plunder, emigrations, colonies, deſperate enterpriſes, adventures, and gallantry. They talk inceſſantly of their honour and their bravery, whilſt they are univerſally conſidered by thoſe with whom they have intercourſe as the moſt treacherous ferocious people on the face of the globe; and yet, which appeared to me extremely ſingular, they ſpeak the ſofteſt language of Aſia. What the Count de Forbin has ſaid, in his memoirs, of the ferocity of the Macaſſars, is exactly true, and is the reigning characteriſtic of the whole Malay nations. More attached to the abſurd laws of their pretended honour than to thoſe of juſtice or humanity, you always obſerve that amongſt them the ſtrong oppreſs and deſtroy the weak; their treaties of peace and friendſhip never ſubſiſting beyond that ſelf-intereſt which induced them to make them, they are almoſt always armed,

Malays. armed, and either at war amongſt themſelves, or employed in pillaging their neighbours.

" This ferocity which the Malays qualify under the name of courage, is ſo well known to the European companies who have ſettlements in the Indies, that they have univerſally agreed in prohibiting the captains of their ſhips, who may put into the Malay iſlands, from taking on board any ſeamen of that nation, except in the greateſt diſtreſs, and then on no account to exceed two or three.

" It is nothing uncommon for a handful of theſe horrid ſavages ſuddenly to embark, attack a veſſel by ſurprize, poignard in hand, maſſacre the people, and make themſelves maſters of her. Malay barks, with 25 or 30 men, have been known to board European ſhips of 30 or 40 guns, in order to take poſſeſſion of them, and murder with their poignards great part of the crew. The Malay hiſtory is full of ſuch enterpriſes, which mark the deſperate ferocity of theſe barbarians.

" The Malays who are not ſlaves go always armed; they would think themſelves diſgraced if they went abroad without their poignards, which they call *Crit;* the induſtry of this nation even ſurpaſſes itſelf in the fabric of this deſtructive weapon.

" As their lives are a perpetual round of agitation and tumult they could never endure the long flowing habits which prevail among the other Aſiatics. The habits of the Malays are exactly adapted to their ſhapes, and loaded with a multitude of buttons, which faſten them cloſe to their bodies in every part. I relate theſe ſeemingly trifling obſervations in order to prove that in climates the moſt oppoſite the ſame laws produce ſimilar manners, cuſtoms, and prejudices: their effect is the ſame too with reſpect to agriculture.

" The lands poſſeſſed by the Malays are in general of a ſuperior quality; nature ſeems to have taken pleaſure in there aſſembling her moſt favourite productions. They have not only thoſe to be found in the territories of Siam, but a variety of others. The country is covered with odoriferous woods, ſuch as the eagle, or aloes wood, the ſandal, and the *Caſſia odorata*, a ſpecies of cinnamon; you there breathe an air impregnated with the odours of innumerable flowers of the greateſt fragrance, of which there is a perpetual ſucceſſion the year round, the

ſweet flavour of which captivates the ſoul, and inſpires the moſt voluptuous ſenſations. No traveller wandering over the plains of Malacca but feels himſelf ſtrongly impelled to wiſh his reſidence fixed in a place ſo luxuriant in allurements, where nature triumphs without the aſſiſtance of art.....In the midſt of all this luxuriance of nature the Malay is miſerable; the culture of the lands, abandoned to ſlaves, is fallen into contempt. Theſe wretched labourers, dragged inceſſantly from their ruſtic employments by their reſtleſs maſters, who delight in war and maritime enterpriſes, have rarely time, and never reſolution, to give the neceſſary attention to the labouring of their grounds; their lands in general remain uncultivated, and produce no kind of grain for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants." Malays.

The reader who wiſhes for more ample information concerning this peninſula may be referred to the voyages of Nieuhof and Hamilton. As the latter aſſerts that the inland inhabitants, whom he calls the Monocaboes, are a different race from the Malays, and of much lighter complexion, it would ſeem probable that the Malays paſſed into this country from the north or ſouth, and there is no ſmall difficulty in accounting for their origin. The language ſhould be ſkilfully collated with thoſe of the neighbouring countries, and even with the ancient dialects of Hindoſtan, as perhaps they may be found to be the ſame with the Pallis, traditionally ſaid to have been the moſt early inhabitants of that celebrated country.

Oppoſite to the coaſt of Malacca, though at a conſiderable diſtance, are the iſlands of Andaman and of Nicobar. The great Andaman is about 140 E. miles in length, but not more than 20 in the greateſt breadth, indented by deep bays affording excellent harbours, and interſected by vaſt inlets and creeks, one of which, navigable for ſmall veſſels, paſſes quite through the iſle.[6] The ſoil is chiefly black mould, the cliffs of a white arenacious ſtone. The extenſive foreſts afford ſome precious trees, as ebony, and the *mellori*, or Nicobar bread fruit. The only quadrupeds ſeem to be wild hogs, monkies, and rats. The ſea ſupplies numerous fiſh, among which are mullets, ſoles, and ex- Andaman.

[6] Aſ. Reſ. iv. 385.

cellent

Andaman. cellent oyſters. The people of the Andamans are as little civilized as any in the world, and are probably cannibals, having at leaſt a particular antipathy againſt ſtrangers. They have woolly heads, and perfectly reſemble negroes; being as ſome report deſcended from a crew of African ſlaves; but they are mentioned in the ninth century by the Mahometan travellers with all their peculiarities, and it is difficult to conceive how a cargo of ſlaves could at an early period be ſteered in that direction. The S. W. monſoon may have driven their canoes from the coaſts of Africa; and, oppoſed in civilized parts, they may have ſeized this deſert iſle.* Their character is truly brutal, inſidious, and ferocious, and their canoes of the rudeſt kind. On Barren iſle, about 15 leagues to the eaſt of the Andamans, is a violent volcano which emits ſhowers of red hot ſtones; and the whole iſland has a ſingular and volcanic appearance. A Britiſh ſettlement has been recently formed on the Greater Andaman, and ſome convicts ſent thither from Bengal. The natives, about 2000, have already profited by the example of Engliſh induſtry.

Nicobar. The Nicobars are three; the largeſt being about five leagues in circumference.[7] They produce cocoa and areca trees, with yams and ſweet potatoes; and the eatable bird's neſts, ſo highly eſteemed in China, abound here as well as in the Andamans. The people are of a copper colour, with ſmall oblique eyes and other Tatar features. In their dreſs a ſmall ſtripe of cloth hangs down behind; and hence the ignorant tales of ſeamen which led even Linnæus to infer that ſome kinds of men had tails. The only quadrupeds are ſwine and dogs. The traffic is in cocoa nuts, of which one hundred are given for a yard of blue cloth. The tree called by the natives Larum, by the Portugueſe Mellori, produces an excellent bread fruit, different from the kind found in the interior parts of Africa, and alſo from that of Otaheite. The fruit is ſaid to weigh 20 or 30 pounds; and ſome plants have been brought to the botanical garden of the Eaſt India Company near Calcutta.

* They are, after all, probably of the ſame race with the other negroes of the Aſiatic Iſles, which ſee.

[7] Aſ. Reſ. iii. 149.

SIAM.

CHAPTER I.

Historical Geography.

Name.—Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Population.—Progreſſive Geography.—Hiſtorical Epochs.

TILL the recent extenſion of the Birman empire, the rich and flouriſhing monarchy of Siam was to be regarded as the chief ſtate of exterior India. The brief connection eſtabliſhed with France, towards the end of the ſeventeenth century, excited many writers to give accounts of this kingdom, while only an imperfect knowledge was diffuſed concerning the ſurrounding ſtates. Thoſe of the jeſuits are deſervedly diſeſteemed, when compared with that of La Loubere, himſelf envoy extraordinary from Louis XIV to the Siameſe court, which remains the chief guide concerning this ſtate, though capable of occaſional improvements from more recent information on particular topics.

The name of this celebrated country is of uncertain origin, and in appearance firſt delivered by the Portugueſe, in whoſe orthography Siam and Siaō are the ſame, ſo that Sian, or Siang, might be preferable Name.

Name. to Siam;[1] and the Portugueſe writers in latin call the natives *Siones*. The Siameſe ſtyle themſelves *Tai*, or freemen; and their country *Menang Tai*, or the kingdom of freemen. It is probable that the Portugueſe derived the name Sian from intercourſe with the Pegueſe.*

Extent and Boundaries. The extent of the Siameſe dominions has been recently reſtricted by the encroachments of the Birmans, nor can ſome of the limits be accurately defined. On the weſt of the Malaian peninſula a few poſſeſſions may remain, to the ſouth of Tanaſerim; and on the eaſtern ſide of that Cherſoneſe Ligor may mark the boundary. On the weſt a chain of mountains ſeems to divide Siam, as formerly, from Pegu,—but the northern province of Yunſhan would appear to be in the hands of the Birmans, who here ſeem to extend to the river Maykang; and perhaps the limits may be a ſmall ridge running E. and W. above the river Anan. To the ſouth and caſt the ancient boundaries are fixed; the ocean, and a chain of mountains, dividing Siam from Laos and Cambodia. Thus the ancient idea may be retained, that this kingdom is a large vale between two ridges of mountains.

The northern boundaries, as defined by Loubere, evince that Siam has loſt little in that quarter. His city Chiamai is probably Zamee; and was fifteen days journey beyond the Siameſe frontier. But when he marks the northern limit at 22°, there is an error in latitude. It is about the nineteenth degree; ſo that the length of the kingdom may be about ten degrees, or near 700 Britiſh miles; but of this about one half is not above 70 miles in medial breadth. A more adequate admeaſurement may be eſtimated from about 11° of N. lat. to 19°; a length of about 550 Britiſh miles, by the breadth of 240.

Original Population. The original population of Siam, and other regions of exterior India, can only be traced by affinity of languages; and the topic has been little illuſtrated. For this purpoſe the vulgar ſpeech muſt be choſen, and not the Bali, or language of the learned, which is perhaps the ſame with the Palli of Hindoſtan. If the former be monoſyllabic, as Loubere ſays, it bears ſome affinity with the Chineſe; and, he adds, with thoſe of the eaſtern regions of exterior India. That of the Malays

[1] Loubere, i. 16 edit. Amſt. 1714.

* *Shan* is the oriental term, as appears from ſeveral papers in the Aſiatic Reſearches.

is very different; and perhaps they proceeded, as before-mentioned, from Hindoſtan, while the other tribes of further India advanced by land from China and Tibet; though there may perhaps be found great difference in the dialect, from early ſeparation in a ſavage ſtate, followed by different wants and cuſtoms. ORIGINAL POPULATION.

The progreſſive geography of Siam aſcends to claſſical antiquity, if the people be, as is reaſonably inferred, the Sinæ of Ptolemy. The early navigators imagined that the Chineſe were the Sinæ, and that the iſle of Taprobana was Sumatra! In the reign of the emperor Juſtinian, Coſmas, called Indicopleuſtes, mentions the ſilk of the Sinæ, as imported into Taprobana; which he alſo calls *Sieledіva*, coinciding with *Selendib*, the oriental name of Ceylon: and when he adds that this iſle was at an equal diſtance from the Perſian gulph, and the region of the Sinæ, he affords an additional proof that the latter was Siam. This country is not indeed at preſent remarkable for the production of ſilk, the ſtaple article of the ancient Sinæ; but it appears that the ſilk of the early claſſics was the growth of a tree, a kind of ſilky cotton, ſtill abundant in Siam; and perhaps, as Malacca afterwards became famous for products not its own, ſo Siam, in a ſimilar centrical poſition between China and Hindoſtan might, in ancient times, be the mart of this and other more oriental articles. When real ſilk became known to the Romans, about the time of Aurelian, a pound was ſold for twelve ounces of gold, a price which ſhews that it muſt have paſſed through repeated mercantile profits. The Perſian monks, who, in the ſixth century, introduced the ſilk-worm into the Byzantine empire, perhaps proceeded to the weſt of China, if they did not find that valuable inſect in ſome warm vales of Tibet.* Nor, while it is denied that the Greeks, or Romans had any knowledge of China, is it meant to be inferred that the Perſians were in the like predicament; the Arabian travellers of the ninth century, whoſe account is publiſhed by Renaudot, and is inconteſtibly genuine, ſhewing a very complete knowledge of that country. PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

* If, as ſome ancients affirm, they brought it from the *Seres*, (not the Sinæ) Little Bucharia muſt be implied; but the ancient ideas were vague; and often, as in the caſe of Arabia and Hindoſtan, confounded the mart with the native country.

Progressive Geography.

Some faint notices concerning Siam may probably occur in the oriental geographers of the middle ages; but such enquiries are more proper for an antiquarian dissertation. Suffice it to observe that, till the Portuguese discoveries, Siam may be said to have remained unknown to Europeans. In the middle of the seventeenth century Mandelslo,[2] or his translator Wicquefort, has compiled a tolerable account of this country; but the French descriptions present more precision of knowledge, as well as more extent of information. By the latter was first reformed a singular error in the geography, which deduced the great rivers of Ava, Pegu, and Siam from a large inland lake called Chiamai, in lat. 30°, while Tibet is placed in lat. 40°. This gross error perhaps arose from the report that the small river of Pegu rises in a lake about lat. 21°. But on comparing the maps of Asia, in the beginning of last century, and even that of China and the East Indies, in the Amsterdam edition of Mandelslo, 1718, the reader will be sensible of the great progress of geography in recent times.

Historical Epochs.

The Siamese history is imperfect, and abounds with fables. Their epoch is derived from the pretended disparition of their god Sommona Codam (or Boodh); and the christian year 1689 corresponded with their 2233d.[3] Yet by Loubere's account their first king began to reign in the year 1300 of their epoch, or about 756 years after the Christian era. Wars with Pegu, and occasional usurpations of the throne, constitute the hinges of Siamese history since the Portuguese discovery. In 1568 the Pegueſe king declared war on account of two white elephants which the Siamese refused to surrender; and after prodigious slaughter on both sides Siam became tributary to Pegu. But about 1620 Raja Hapi delivered his crown from this servitude.[4] In 1680 Phalcon, a Greek adventurer, being highly favoured by the king of Siam, opened an intercourse with France, in the view of supporting his ambitious designs; but they were punished by his decapitation in 1689, and the French connection ceased in consequence. The latter events of Siamese history may partly be traced in that of the Birman empire.

[2] Col. 304—231. [3] Loubere, i. 21. [4] Mandelslo, 322.

CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Religion.— Government.— Laws.—Population. —Army.—Navy.— Revenues.— Political Importance.

THE religion of the Siameſe, like that of the Birmans, reſembles that of the Hindoos; and the tranſmigration of ſouls forms an eſſential part of the doctrine. Sommona Codam, mentioned by Loubere as the chief idol of Siam, is interpreted by competent judges to be the ſame with the Boodh of Hindoſtan.[1] The ſacred language called Bali is of the ſame origin; and Loubere has publiſhed a tranſlation of a Siameſe legend in that tongue. The moſt eſteemed book ſeems the Vinac; and the precepts of morality are chiefly five. 1. Not to kill. 2. Not to ſteal. 3. Not to commit uncleanneſs. 4. Not to lye. 5. Not to drink any intoxicating liquor.[2] Compared with the precepts of Moſes, thoſe againſt idols are of courſe unknown, nor is any particular day of the week declared ſacred. Vain ſwearing, and falſe teſtimony are alſo omitted; nor is there any command to pay due reſpect to parents, or to avoid covetouſneſs. But in the univerſal code of morality murder and theft are eſteemed pre-eminent crimes; the firſt being irreparable. Loubere has alſo given a tranſlation of a more minute code of morals, chiefly compiled for the uſe of the perſons dedicated to religion, whom he names Talapoins. RELIGION.

In the Birman empire the high prieſt is called the Seredaw, while the term for an inferior prieſt is Rhahan. Loubere has entered into conſiderable details concerning the prieſts and monks of Siam, whom he calls Talapoins, though he add that the native term is Tchaoucou;*

[1] Symes, ii. 319 [2] Loubere, i. 381.

*Kæmpfer, i. 62, ſays the young monks are ſtyled Dſiaunces, and the old Dſiaukus: the nuns Nank-tſiji.

Religion. and he does not explain the probably Dutch appellation of Talapoin, though he inform us that the convents are named Vat, and the temples Pihan; while the Portugueſe ſtyle them and the idols *Pagods*, as that author conceives, from the Perſian *Poutgheda*, meaning an idol-temple.

The Siameſe imitate the Chineſe in their feſtival of the dead; and in ſome other rites of that ſingular nation.

Government. The government of Siam is deſpotic; and the ſovereign, as among the Birmans, revered with honours almoſt divine. The ſucceſſion to the crown is hereditary in the male line. Loubere adds that a council was generally held twice a day, about ten o'clock in the morning, and at the ſame hour in the evening, when ſuits were diſcuſſed, and affairs of ſtate deliberated. It may be conceived that the king was not always preſent. Sometimes he conſults the Sancras, or ſuperior Talapoins, and ſometimes the governors of provinces.

Laws. The laws are repreſented by all writers on this country as extremely ſevere, death or mutilation being puniſhments even of unimportant offences.

Population. Concerning the population of Siam there are no adequate documents. If the Birman empire contain, as is aſſerted, more than fourteen millions, it might perhaps be reaſonable to conclude that the Siameſe dominions may be peopled by about eight millions. Yet Loubere aſſures us, that, from actual enumeration, there were only found of men, women, and children, one million, nine hundred thouſand.[3] So uncertain are the computations in oriental countries!

Army. Loubere ſays that, in his time, there was no army, except a few royal guards; but Mandelſlo eſtimated the army, which may be occaſionally raiſed, at 60,000, with not leſs than 3000 or 4000 elephants. The manner of raiſing this army reſembles that already deſcribed, as practiſed in the Birman empire.

Navy. The navy is compoſed of a number of veſſels of various ſizes, ſome of which are richly decorated. Hence, as in the Birman hiſtory, naval engagements are not uncommon; and the large rivers of exterior India are often reddened with human gore. The form of the Birman and Siameſe veſſels may be better learned from the plates, in the works of

[3] i. 30.

Col.

Col. Symes and Loubere, than from the moſt elaborate deſcription. They frequently diſplay a ſingular fantaſtic elegance. Navy.

The revenues of this ſovereignty are of uncertain computation. They are deſcribed by Mandelſlo as ariſing from the third of all inheritances, from trade conducted by royal agents, annual preſents from the governors of provinces, duties impoſed on commerce, and the diſcovery of gold, which by this account ſeems a regal claim. Loubere adds a kind of land-tax; and other particulars, among which is the royal domain.[4] Tin is alſo a royal metal, except that found in Jonkſeylon, a remote iſle on the Malaian coaſt, which is abandoned to the adventurers. There is a royal treaſury, as in moſt other eaſtern ſtates, but voyagers have not attempted to define its probable amount. Loubere ſays it was reported as an extraordinary affair, that the king had increaſed his revenue by about 42,000l. ſterling: ſuppoſing this a fifth part of the whole, the opulence of the monarch muſt chiefly ariſe from the national poverty, which renders money valuable when compared with commodities. Revenues.

Siam appeared of conſiderable political importance to the French in the reign of Louis XIV, who aſpired to form laſting ſettlements, and render it a mart of Indian commerce, and a ſource of great opulence to themſelves. Were the Birmans to become dangerous to our poſſeſſions in Bengal, a firm alliance with Siam might be highly ſerviceable; and the like policy is adapted to the Chineſe empire, if that great ſtate ever formed alliances. In a merely commercial point of view, as it may be difficult to preſerve the friendſhip both of the Birmans and the Siameſe, it is a matter of calculation from which ſtate ſuperior advantages may be derived. If directed by European policy, Siam would form ſtrict alliances with the more eaſtern ſtates of exterior India, as a common defence againſt the growing preponderance of the Birmans. Political Importance and Relations.

[4] i. 284.

CHAPTER III.

Civil Geography.

Manners. — Language. — Literature. — Cities. — Edifices. — Manufactures. — Commerce.

Manners and Customs.

THERE is a conſiderable ſimilitude in the manners and cuſtoms of all the ſtates between the vaſt countries of China and Hindoſtan; with ſhades of difference, as they approximate to either of theſe *foci* of civilization. Siam, though centrical, has embraced a branch of Hindoo faith, and the manners are rather Hindoſtanic than Chineſe.

Loubere has given an ample and intereſting account of Siameſe manners. The fair ſex are under few reſtraints, and are married at an early age, being paſt parturition at forty. The eſpouſals are concluded by female mediation; and as wealth is carefully concealed, from dread of extortion by the magiſtrate or prince, a prieſt or magician is conſulted concerning the propriety of the alliance. On the third viſit the parties are conſidered as wedded, after the exchange of a few preſents, and without any further ceremony civil or ſacred. Polygamy is allowed; but is rather practiſed from oſtentation than any other motive, and one wife is always acknowledged as ſupreme. From pride the royal marriages are ſometimes inceſtuous, and the king does not heſitate to eſpouſe his own ſiſter. Divorce is ſeldom practiſed, as mutual neceſſities and habits perpetuate the union of the poor; and the rich may chooſe a more compliant wife without diſmiſſing the former. A temporary amorous intercourſe is rather forbidden by the pride of the ſex, than by any moral or legal conſiderations, being regarded as a brief marriage, and inconſtancy as a divorce. Few women become nuns till they be advanced in years.

According to the ſame excellent author the Siameſe funerals conſiderably reſemble thoſe of the Chineſe.[1] The body is incloſed in a

[1] i. 371.

wooden

wooden bier or varniſhed coffin; and the monks called Talapoins, (perhaps from their *talapan*, or peculiar umbrella,) ſing hymns in the Bali tongue. After a ſolemn proceſſion the body is burnt on a funeral pile of precious woods, erected near ſome temple; and the ſpectacle is often rendered more magnificent by the addition of theatrical exhibitions, in which the Siameſe excel. The tombs are in a pyramidal form; and thoſe of the kings large and lofty. Mourning is not preſcribed by the laws, as in China: and the poor are buried with little ceremony. MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

As we eat leſs in ſummer than in winter, ſo in general nations inhabiting warm climates are temperate in diet. The common nouriſhment of the Siameſe conſiſts in rice and fiſh, both which articles are abundant. They alſo eat lizards, rats, and ſeveral kinds of inſects. The value of about one penny ſterling ſufficed to procure a poor man his daily pound of rice, with ſome dried fiſh and rack. The buffaloes yield rich milk; but butter would melt and become rancid, and cheeſe is unknown. Little animal food is uſed in Siam, mutton and beef being very bad; and while the Chineſe indulge in all viands, the doctrine of Boodh rather influences the Siameſe, and induces a horror at the effuſion of blood. So that Siam in this, as in other reſpects, forms a medial point of compariſon between China and Hindoſtan. Yet in grand feſtivals the Chineſe manner is ſometimes adopted.

The houſes are ſmall, and conſtructed of bamboos upon pillars, to guard againſt inundations ſo common in this country. They are ſpeedily deſtroyed and replaced; and a conflagration, if a common, is at the ſame time a ſlight calamity. Even the palaces only exceed the common habitations by occupying a more extenſive ſpace, and being conſtructed of timber, with a few ornaments: they are alſo of a greater height, but never exceed one floor. If they continue as Loubere deſcribes them, they form a ſtriking contraſt with the ſplendid edifices of the Birmans; but it is probable that rivalry has produced greater pomp. Brick was however uſed in the conſtruction of temples, and funeral pyramids. It is to be wiſhed that Loubere had figured the latter as well as the former; and indeed to be regretted in general that a more intelligent voyager to Siam has not ſupplied any defects in his intereſting narrative.

Personal Features.

In perſon the Siameſe are rather ſmall but well made.[2] "The figure of the countenance, both of men and women, has leſs of the oval than of the lozenge form, being broad, and raiſed at the top of the cheeks: and the forehead ſuddenly contracts, and is almoſt as pointed as the chin. Beſides their eyes, riſing ſomewhat towards the temples, are ſmall and dull; and the *white* is commonly completely yellow. Their cheeks are hollow, becauſe the upper part is too high: mouth very large, with thick pale lips, and teeth blackened by art. Complexion coarſe, brown mixed with red, to which the climate greatly contributes."*

From this deſcription it would appear that the Siameſe are much inferior in perſonal appearance to the Birmans; and rather approach to the Tataric or Chineſe features.

Dreſs.

The dreſs is extremely ſlight, the warmth of the climate rendering clothes almoſt unneceſſary. A muſlin ſhirt with wide ſleeves, and a kind of looſe drawers, are almoſt the only garments of the rich, a mantle being added in winter. A high conic cap covers the head. The women do not uſe the ſhirt but a ſcarf; and the petticoat is of painted calico: but with this ſlight dreſs they are extremely modeſt.

Amuſements.

The Siameſe excel, as already mentioned, in theatrical amuſements. The ſubjects are often taken from their mythology, and from traditions concerning their ancient heroes. According to Loubere the *Cone* is a kind of pantomime, with muſic and dancing: the *Lacone* is a ſerious drama, generally requiring three days to repreſent: the *Rabam* is a jocund dance by men and women. For an account of the other amuſements the reader muſt be referred to that intelligent voyager; who deſcribes the races of oxen and thoſe of boats, the combats of elephants, cock-fighting, tumbling, wreſtling, and rope-dancing, religious proceſſions, and illuminations, and the beautiful exhibitions of fire works. The men are generally indolent to exceſs, and fond of games of chance, while the women are employed in works of induſtry.

Language.

Like the other languages of further India the Siameſe has not been completely inveſtigated, and compared with the adjacent tongues.

[2] Loub. i. 81.

* Kæmpfer, i. 29. calls them negroes, ſo dark did their complexions appear to him; and he compares their perſons to apes.

There

There are thirty-ſeven letters, all conſonants, while the Bali has thirty-three.[3] The vowels and diphthongs conſtitute a diſtinct alphabet. The R appears, which is not known to the Chineſe, and the W. There is a conſiderable chant in the enunciation, as in other ancient languages: and as Europeans in general conſider this change of voice as ridiculous, though really pleaſant and ſtrictly conformable to nature, it is in vain to attempt the juſt pronunciation of even Greek or Latin, till this prejudice be overcome, if it be not indeed invincible. There are no inflexions of verbs or nouns; and the idioms being very remote from thoſe of Europe, any tranſlation becomes very difficult. The words ſeem moſtly monoſyllabic, like the Chineſe. Language.

The Bali of the Siameſe reſembles that of the Birmans; but a curious topic of reſearch would be to compare the vulgar tongues of exterior India.

In literature the Siameſe are far from being deficient, and Loubere has well explained their modes of education.[4] At the age of ſeven or eight years the children are often placed in the convents of the Talapoins, where they are inſtructed in reading, writing, and accompts, for the mercantile profeſſion is very general. They are alſo taught precepts of morality; but it is to be regretted that Boodh is not only the god of wiſdom but of cunning, which is eſteemed if not a poſitive virtue yet a proof of ſuperior abilities, whence his followers ever attempt to over-reach others. This ſingular perverſion of the moral ſenſe, by which honeſty and ſincerity are branded as marks of folly, is not unknown to ſome Europeans, but has not yet been adopted as a precept of religion: in this reſpect therefore the morals of the Chineſe, and other oriental traders, muſt be computed by a new ſtandard. Books of hiſtory are not unknown, and there is an excellent code of laws. Poetry, tales, and mythologic fables, ſeem to conſtitute the other departments of Siameſe literature. Literature.

The capital city of the kingdom has been called Siam, by the vague ignorance of the Portugueſe navigators. In the native language the name approaches to the European enunciation of Yuthia. It is ſituated in an iſle, formed by the river Meinam. The walls, in Loubere's time, were Cities and Towns.

[3] Loub. *ii.* 73. [4] *i.* 180.

Cities and Towns.

extenſive; but not above a ſixth part was inhabited. Its condition, ſince it was delivered from the Birman conqueſt in 1766, has not been deſcribed. Loubere's method is unhappily mingled and digreſſive, ſo that his information concerning the capital is ſuddenly interrupted by other topics. It muſt therefore ſuffice further to obſerve that the royal palace was on the north; and that on the eaſt there was a cauſy*, affording the only free paſſage by land. Diſtinct quarters were inhabited by the Chineſe, Japaneſe, Cochin-Chineſe, Portugueſe, and Malays. Mandelſlo ſeems to have lent ſome faith to the fables of that notorious voyager Pinto; but Yuthia has not impreſſed other writers in a reſpectable point of view. The temples, pyramids, and royal palace, ſeem greatly inferior in all reſpects to thoſe of the Birmans.

The other chief towns in the Siameſe dominions are Bankok, at the mouth of the Meinam; with Ogmo and others on the eaſtern coaſt of the gulf of Siam. On the weſtern D'Anville marks Cham, Cini, and others as far as Ligor. Along the banks of the great river are Louvo and Porſelouc, with others of inferior note. Loubere mentions Motac as the chief town on the N. W. frontier. Louvo was a royal reſidence for a conſiderable part of the year. In general theſe towns were only collections of hovels, ſometimes ſurrounded with a wooden ſtockade, and rarely with a brick wall. As there is no recent deſcription of the country, it would ſuperfluous to dwell on old deſcriptions of places perhaps ruined in the frequency of oriental revolutions; while other cities may have ariſen as yet unknown to geography.

In the S. W. Tanaſerim and Merghi muſt ſeemingly be now regarded as Birman poſſeſſions; and the remaining fragment of the Siameſe territory in that quarter preſents no conſiderable town, though villages appear in Jonkſeylon and ſome of the other iſles.

Edifices.

The induſtrious Kæmpfer, on his voyage to Japan in 1690, viſited Siam; and his account, though brief, is ſolid and intereſting. He minutely deſcribes two remarkable edifices near the capital.[5] The firſt is the famous pyramid called Puka Thon, on a plain to the N. W.,

* This word being from the French *chauſſée*, *cauſeway* ſeems an odd colloquial tranſlation.

5 i. 50.

erected

erected in memory of a victory there obtained over the king of Pegu. It is a maſſy but magnificent ſtructure, about 120 feet in height, in a ſquare ſpot incloſed by a wall. The firſt ſtage is ſquare, each ſide being about 115 paces long. The others vary in form; and there are open galleries ornamented with columns. At the top it terminates in a ſlender ſpire. He mentions the ſurrounding temples as being built of brick, whence it may be inferred that the pyramid is of ſtone,* perhaps reſembling thoſe of the Birmans. Edifices.

The ſecond edifice conſiſts of two ſquares to the eaſt of the city, each ſurrounded with a fair wall, and ſeparated by a channel of the river. They contain many temples, convents, chapels, and columns, particularly the temple of Berklam, with a grand gate ornamented with ſtatues and other carvings: the other decorations were alſo, by his account, exquiſite.

That intelligent voyager alſo deſcribes ſome other edifices; and his ideas on the ſubject deſerve to be contraſted with thoſe of Loubere, who, accuſtomed to the pomp of Louis XIV, or diſguſted by the maſſacre of his countrymen, may in this, and ſome other inſtances, have perhaps given unfavourable repreſentations of this celebrated country.

Though the Siameſe be an indolent, yet they are an ingenious people, and ſome of their manufactures deſerve praiſe. Yet the ruinous and deſpotic avarice of the government cruſhes induſtry by the uncertainty of property. The ſervice of ſix months, due by every ſubject to the ſovereign, alſo proves an invincible obſtacle. They are little ſkilled in the fabrication of iron or ſteel; but excel in that of gold, and ſometimes in miniature painting. The common people are moſtly occupied in procuring fiſh for their daily food, while the ſuperior claſſes are engaged in a trifling traffic. Manufactures.

Loubere gives us little or no intelligence on the nature of their commerce, paſſing, in his uſual way, to the manner of ſigning names, the weights and meaſures, and the ſingular ſhape of their coins. Mandelſlo informs us that the commerce of Yuthia conſiſted in cloths imported from Hindoſtan, and various articles from China; in exports of jewels, Commerce.

* He ſpecially mentions, i. 43, that many houſes and ſome bridges in Yuthia were of ſtone: and he ſays, p. 45, that the temples exceed German churches in magnificence.

gold,

Commerce. gold, benjoin, lacca, wax, tin, lead, &c. and particularly deer-ſkins, of which more than 150,000 were ſold annually to the Japaneſe. Rice was alſo exported in great quantities to the Aſiatic iſles.

The king was, by a ruinous policy, the chief merchant, and had factors in moſt of the neighbouring countries. The royal trade conſiſted in cotton cloths, tin, ivory, ſaltpetre, rack, and ſkins ſold to the Dutch.[6]

The following recent information is derived from a valuable collection.[7] "The productions of this country are prodigious quantities of grain, cotton, benjamin; ſandal, aguallo, and ſapan woods; antimony, tin, lead, iron, load-ſtones, gold, and ſilver; ſapphires, emeralds, agates, cryſtal, marble, and tambac."

CHAPTER IV.

Natural Geography.

Climate and Seaſons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.

Climate and Seaſons. THE two firſt months of the Siameſe year, which correſpond with our December and January, form the whole winter of this country: the third, fourth, and fifth, belong to what is called their little ſummer; the ſeven others to their great ſummer.[8] Being on the north of the line, their winter of courſe correſponds with ours; but is almoſt as warm, ſays our author, as a French ſummer. The little ſummer is their ſpring; but autumn is abſolutely unknown in their calendar. The winter is dry; the ſummer moiſt; the former is diſtinguiſhed by the courſe of the wind, which blows almoſt conſtantly from the north, refreſhed with cold from the ſnowy mountains of Tibet, and the bleak waſtes of Mongolia.

[6] Loub. i. 286. [7] Dalrymple's Oriental Repertory, p. 118. [8] Loub. i. 53.

This country, as already mentioned, is a wide vale between two high ridges of mountains, thus ſomewhat reſembling Egypt on a wider ſcale. Compared with the Birman empire, the cultivated level is not above half the extent either in breadth or length. Nor do the Siameſe ſeem ſo induſtrious as the Birmans, as their agriculture does not appear to extend far from the banks of the river and its branches; ſo that towards the mountains there are vaſt aboriginal foreſts filled with wild animals, whence the numbers of deer and other ſkins exported as merchandize. The rocky and variegated ſhores of the noble gulf of Siam, and the ſize and inundations of the Meinam, conſpire with the rich and pictureſque vegetation of the foreſts, illumined at night with crouds of brilliant fire-flies, to impreſs ſtrangers with delight and admiration. FACE OF THE COUNTRY.

The ſoil towards the mountains is parched and unfertile, but on the ſhores of the river conſiſts, like that of Egypt, of an extremely rich and pure mould, in which it is even difficult to find a pebble. It is in fact a muddy depoſition, accumulating from early ages, and manured, as it were, by regular inundations, ſo as to produce exuberant quantities of rice. The country would be a terreſtrial paradiſe, were it not ſubject to the moſt abſurd deſpotiſm, which impoveriſhes itſelf, and may perhaps be claſſed among the worſt of governments, being far inferior to that of their neighbours the Birmans. Soil.

Agriculture, as uſual in the eaſt, is ſimple and primitive. The chief product is rice of excellent quality; but wheat is not unknown, in lands not ſubject to the inundations. Peas, and other vegetables, alſo abound. Maize is confined to their gardens. From indolence or prejudice ſeldom more than one annual crop is taken from the ſame land.[2] Agriculture.

The grand river Meinam, a name which ſignifies the *mother of waters*, reigns ſupreme among the Siameſe ſtreams. Loubere[3] aſſerts that this river is ſo ſmall when it enters the dominions of Siam, that for about fifty leagues it can only convey ſmall boats, not capable of carrying above four or five perſons. By his account it is afterwards ſwelled, at the town of Laconcevan, by another conſiderable river from the north, alſo called Meinam: but this in our modern maps* is a mere reunion of a Rivers.

[2] Loub. i 50, who has engraved the Siameſe plough.

[3] i. 7.

* D'Anville however follows Loubere.

branch

Rivers. branch of the river; and this error of Loubere may lead us to ſuſpect his information concerning the ſmallneſs of the ſtream, which may probably be only impeded by *rapides*, or declivitous cataracts. On the contrary, when we conſider the regular inundations, reſembling thoſe of the Nile and Ganges, rivers of long courſe, and other circumſtances, there is room to infer that the Meinam is of a more diſtant and higher extract than from the mountains of Yunnan in the weſt of China; and that the Tibetian alps furniſh its ſource in that of the Nou Kian of the lamas, ſuppoſed to be the Thaluan or river of Martaban, which has no delta, nor any marks of ſo diſtant an origin, but is repreſented by Loubere and D'Anville as a ſhort and inſignificant ſtream.

However this be, the Meinam is deſervedly celebrated among the oriental rivers. Kæmpfer informs us that it is very deep and rapid, always full, and larger than the Elbe.[4] He adds that the inhabitants ſuppoſe its ſource to be in the mountains which give riſe to the Ganges, and that it branches through Cambodia and Pegu, an account ſomewhat confirmed by the diſcovery of the river Anan, which connects the Meinam with the river of Cambodia. But they fabled that other branches paſſed through immenſe foreſts even to the Ganges. The inundations are in September, after the ſnows have greatly melted in the northern mountains, and the rainy ſeaſon has commenced. In December the waters decline, and ſink by degrees to their former level. The ſame intelligent traveller informs us that the water in the earth ſwells before the river riſe: that the wells are nitrous, but the water of the Meinam, though muddy, is pleaſant and ſalutary: that the inundations are chiefly perceivable towards the centre of the kingdom, not near the ſea, the cauſes being ſomewhat exhauſted: that the rice is reaped in boats, and the ſtraw left in the water: that a feſtival is celebrated in December, when the wind begins to blow from the north, and the inundation abates.

The banks of the Meinam are generally low and marſhy, but thickly peopled from Yuthia to Bankok, below which are wild deſarts like the Sunderbunds of the Ganges. Monkeys, fire-flies, and moſkitoes, ſwarm on the fertile ſhores.

[4] i. 67. Fr. edit.

To the north of the Siameſe dominions ſome rivers join the Meinam; but their names are unknown, and they belong to the Birman territories. The ſame obſervation may be applied to the river of Tanaſerim, and that of Tavoy. In the S. E. is that of Shantebon; and a ſtream which joins the delta of the Meinam. Rivers.

In the eaſt of the kingdom a ſmall lake is delineated, giving ſource to a river which flows into that of Cambodia; and it is probable that others may exiſt near the mountains, though unknown to geographers. Lakes.

The extenſive ranges of mountains which incloſe this kingdom on the eaſt and weſt have been repeatedly mentioned. Theſe may be called the Siameſe chains, till the native names be aſcertained. A ſmall ridge alſo paſſes eaſt and weſt, not far to the north of Yuthia, which Loubere ſeems to call Taramamon. In the north Siam terminates in plains; nor does it, even by conqueſt, ſeem ever to have reached the mountains on the Chineſe frontier. Mountains.

The foreſts are numerous and large, and produce many kinds of valuable woods; but the teak is not mentioned. Foreſts.

The chief animals of Siam are elephants, buffaloes, and deer. Horſes ſeem little known or uſed, though found wild in Tibet: yet there are, or were, a few ill-mounted cavalry. The elephants of Siam are of diſtinguiſhed ſagacity and beauty; and thoſe of a white colour are treated with a kind of adoration, as the Siameſe believe the ſoul of ſuch is royal. Wild boars, tigers, and monkies, are alſo numerous. The Meinam is, at diſtant intervals of time, infeſted with ſmall poiſonous ſerpents; and the trees on its banks are, as already mentioned, beautifully illuminated with ſwarms of fire-flies, which emit and conceal their light as uniformly as if it proceeded from a machine of the moſt exact contrivance. Zoology.

Mandelſlo, or rather his tranſlator Wicquefort, who added, about the year 1670, the accounts of Pegu, Siam, Japan, &c., informs us that Siam contains mines of gold, ſilver, tin, and copper. Loubere dedicates a whole chapter to the Siameſe mines; and expreſſes an opinion that they were in preceding ages more induſtriouſly wrought, as the ancient Mineralogy.

Mineralogy. pits evinced; not to mention the great quantity of gold, which muſt have been employed in richly gilding the idols, pillars, cielings, and even roofs of their temples. In his time, though Europeans were employed, no mine of gold or ſilver could be found which was worth the working. Yet ſome copper mines were diſcovered, which yielded a ſmall proportion of gold: and a larger proportion conſtituted the metal called *tambac*. The beſt native tambac was found in the iſle of Borneo. Le Blanc ſays that the Pegueſe had a mixture, probably artifical, of copper, and lead, which they called *ganza*.

Loubere adds that a French phyſician employed by the Siameſe monarch, had diſcovered antimony, emery, and ſome other minerals, with a quarry of white marble. He alſo boaſted that he had found a mine of gold, which he concealed from the natives.

But the mines chiefly wrought by the Siameſe were of tin and lead. The tin, called *calin* by the Portugueſe, was ſold throughout the Indies, but was ſoft and ill refined, as it appeared in the tea-canniſters then uſed. Loubere adds that zink was added to form tutenag; an error, for tutenag is a native mixture of zink and iron. In another paſſage he informs us that all the tin, except that of Junkſeylon, was a royal perquiſite.[5]

Near Louvo was a mountain of load-ſtone: and another in Junkſeylon of inferior quality. Fine agates abounded in the mountains, nor were ſapphires unknown; but the addition of diamonds ſeems doubtful, if the doubt be not a negation that ſo precious a ſubſtance ſhould remain ſo long unknown. The *mines of ſteel*, mentioned by our author, ſeem to imply a pure iron eaſily converted into ſteel, or rather a carbonated ore of iron, which was however ſo little wrought that wooden anchors were uſed.

The chorography of Siam is too imperfect to ſupply any account of mineral waters, or natural curioſities.

Iſles. Among the numerous and minute iſles which owe a doubtful ſubjection to Siam, Junkſeylon alone deſerves mention, if it be not reduced under the power of the Birmans. By Captain Foreſt's account, who

[5] i. 287.

viſited

visited this isle in 1784, it annually exports about 500 tons of tin, and contains 12,000 inhabitants. Isles.

THE other states of exterior India are Laos, Cambodia, Siampa, Cochin-China, and Tunquin; countries unimportant in themselves, and concerning which the materials are imperfect.

LAOS.

According to Kæmpfer[1] this was a powerful state, surrounded with forests and deserts: and difficult of access by water, because the river is full of rocks and cataracts. But by the newly discovered river of Anan the passage from Siam may perhaps be expedited. The soil is represented as fertile in rice; and Laos furnished the merchants of Cambodia with the best benjoin and lacca. Exquisite musk is also brought from Laos, with some gold and rubies; and the rivers boast of the fresh water mya, which yields pearls. The religion and manners resemble those of Siam; but in personal appearance the people of Laos resemble the southern Chinese. The chief towns were, in Kæmpfer's time, Landjam and Tsiamaja. The former is also styled Lantchang; and Sandepora is added in modern maps: from the former the people are called Lanjanese.

This kingdom, from its inland situation, is less known than any other state of further India, and scarcely any recent materials can be indicated. It remains an object of curious investigation to future travellers.* Du Halde has however published a rout from China to Siam

[1] i. 40.

* The common accounts in geographical compilations are derived from Marini, an Italian jesuit, whose account of Tunquin and Laos appeared about 1650, and a French translation 1661, 4to.

by land, in which ſome account is given of Lahos or Laos. In the language of the country *Mohang* ſignifies a town; and the capital is ſtyled Mohang Leng by the Chineſe.[2] It is of conſiderable extent, but only incloſed with a paliſade: on the weſt are large foreſts and ſeveral rivers. This city ſtands on both ſides of a river called Meinam Tai, which by the Chineſe accounts joins the river of Siam, ſo that perhaps the Anan is to the ſouth of the capital. Fiſh is rare, but buffalo and veniſon are common in the markets. About five days journey to the north of Mohang Leng are mines of gold, ſilver, and copper; and one of rubies near the city: emeralds are alſo found of great ſize. Tin, red ſulphur, (perhaps cinnabar,) cotton, tea, ſapan or braſil-wood, are alſo exported. Laos was then tributary to Ava: but the chief trade was with the Chineſe. Du Halde's account is not a little confuſed; and though he give the names of many provinces and towns, it would de impoſſible to conſtruct a ſketch of a map from his deſcription. The chief river is ſtyled Meinam Kong, which afterwards paſſes through Cambodia. It would ſeem that branches of the ſame river are diſtinguiſhed by different names. In Mr. Dalrymple's valuable map of exterior India this grand ſtream is called the Kiou Long, or Maykaung; and Mr. Arrowſmith derives it from the Tibetian alps, where it is ſtyled the Satchou, and afterwards by D'Anville the Lan-tſan Kiang; which ſeems to identify it as implying the river of Lantſang, or Leng, the capital of Laos.

CAMBODIA.

THIS country is alſo called Camboja and Camboge; and being partly maritime, is known by repeated deſcriptions. Like Siam, it is incloſed by mountains on the eaſt and weſt, and fertilized by a grand

[2] i. 125.

river,

river, the Maykaung or Makon, near its eſtuary, from ſome abſurd caprice, called the Japaneſe river. In the compilation by Wicquefort, ſtyled the voyage of Mandelſlo, it is ſaid that this river begins to inundate the country in June. Near its mouth it is full of low iſles and ſandbanks, ſo that the navigation is impeded, and there is no port nor town. The country is thinly peopled, and the capital called Cambodia, perhaps becauſe we know not the native term, conſiſts only of one ſtreet, with a ſingle temple. The moſt peculiar product is the ſubſtance ſtyled gamboge, or rather Camboge gum, yielding a fine yellow tint. Ivory alſo abounds, with ſeveral precious woods: and ſome add gold. The country is fertile in rice, and animal food. There are many Japaneſe ſettlers, with Chineſe and Malays, which laſt can ſcarcely be diſtinguiſhed from the natives, who are of a dark yellow complexion, with long black hair.

It is unneceſſary to enlarge on the old and trivial accounts of this country. M. Poivre' obſerves that, not far from the capital, the traveller ſees with aſtoniſhment the ruins of an ancient city built with ſtone, the architecture ſomewhat reſembling the European, while the adjacent lands are marked with furrows of former cultivation. Among the preſent poſſeſſors of the country no tradition exiſts concerning this city. But French travellers are often fond of the romantic; and this information remains to be confuted or confirmed.*

SIAMPA.

This ſmall maritime tract is to the S. E. of Cambodia, from which it ſeems to be ſeparated by a ridge of mountains. Mr. Pennant† informs

' 78.

* He tells, p. 105, a ſimilar tale of a brick wall near the capital of Cochin-China.

† With D'Anville he ſpells the name Ciampa. Staunton, i. 364, puts Tſiompa, and ſays it appears from the ſea as a ſandy tract interſected with rocks.

us,

us, from an old French narrative, that the people of this country are called Loyes; and are large, muſcular, and well made, complexion reddiſh, noſe rather flat, with long black hair: dreſs very ſlight.[1] The king reſides at Feneri, the capital, and was tributary to Cochin-China. Productions, cotton, indigo, and bad ſilk. Their junks are well built, and are much employed in fiſhing.

COCHIN-CHINA.

This country, preſenting an extenſive range of coaſt, has been viſited by many navigators, who have ſupplied conſiderable materials for its deſcription. The name is ſaid to imply Weſtern China, and appears to have been impoſed by the early navigators, perhaps from the Malay appellation, while the native name remains unknown. In his account of the late embaſſy to China Sir G. Staunton has given a comparatively ample deſcription of this country.

An uſurper had extended his conqueſts over Tunquin, while the deſcendants of the former royal family were reſtricted to the ſouthern diſtricts. A conſiderable degree of civilization appeared, and it is ſaid that the people are of Chineſe extract: nay ſome aſſert that this country was anciently a part of that great empire. The aboriginal ſavages, called Moos or Kemoos, are confined to the weſtern range of mountains. As the ſhores abound with havens, the canoes and junks are numerous. The harbour, called Turon by Europeans, is a noble inlet, minutely deſcribed by our author. The country is divided into diſtinct provinces, the capital being Hue-fo, about forty miles to the north of Turon, which is called Han-ſan by the natives. It was reported that the garriſon in Hue-fo amounted to not leſs than thirty thouſand men,

[1] Outlines, iii. 51.

armed

armed with matchlocks, beſides elephants of war. Sabres and pikes are alſo uſed.

The ſuperior ranks are clothed in ſilk, and diſplay the politeneſs of Chineſe manners. The dreſs of both ſexes is ſimilar, being looſe robes with large long ſleeves; and cotton tunics and trowſers. A kind of turban covers the head of the men: but no ſhoes nor ſlippers are uſed. The houſes are moſtly of bamboo, covered with ruſhes or the ſtraw of rice: and ſtand in groves of oranges, limes, plantains, and cocoa trees. Poultry abounds in the markets; and at an entertainment were ſerved pork and beef, two porcupine quills ſupplying a knife and fork. An ardent ſpirit is drank diſtilled from rice, and the amuſements of the theatre are not unknown. They evince ſome ſkill in the manufacture of iron, and their earthen ware is very neat. The rainy ſeaſon is during September, October, and November; and the three following months are alſo cold and moiſt, preſenting the ſemblance of an European winter. The inundations only laſt two or three days, but happen once a fortnight in the rainy ſeaſon. Borri's account bears that the rains only continue for three days regularly in each fortnight: if true a ſingular phœnomenon.[1] March, April, May, form a delicious ſpring; while the heat of the three following months is rather exceſſive.

The horſes are ſmall, but active: there are alſo mules, and aſſes, and innumerable goats. The products of agriculture are rice of different qualities, yams, ſweet potatoes, greens, pumpkins, melons. Sugar abounds, and is excellently purified by a proceſs deſcribed by Staunton. Gold duſt is found in the rivers; and the mines yield ore of ſingular purity. Silver mines have alſo been lately diſcovered. Both metals are uſed in ingots, as in China. The little trade is chiefly conducted by the Portugueſe from Macao.

Mr. Pennant mentions tigers, elephants, and monkies, as abounding in Cochin-China;[2] and that able naturaliſt adds that the edible birds' neſts, eſteemed a luxury in China, are chiefly found in this country. They are formed by a ſpecies of ſwallows from ſome unknown viſcous ſub-

[1] Churchill's Col. vol. ii. [2] Outlines, iii, 65.

ſtance; and the Dutch uſed to export great numbers from Batavia, gathered in the oriental iſles, and on the coaſts of this country.

The Paracels form a long chain of ſmall iſlands with rocks and ſhoals, parallel to the coaſt of Cochin-China.

TUNQUIN.

This country was only divided from the former by a ſmall river, and may at preſent be conſidered as incorporated with it by conqueſt. The inhabitants reſemble their neighbours the Chineſe, but their manners are not ſo civilized. The products are numerous, and ſeem to blend thoſe of China with thoſe of Hindoſtan. While the rivers in Cochin-China are of a ſhort courſe, thoſe of Tunquin ſpring from the mountains of Yunnan; and in the rainy ſeaſon, from May to September, inundate the adjacent country. The chief is the Holi Kian, which, after receiving the Li-ſien, paſſes by Keſho the capital. This city is deſcribed by Dampier, an obſervant voyager, as approaching the Chineſe form, with a conſiderable population. There is no recent deſcription of this country, which however rather reſembles a Chineſe province, and is loſt in the conſideration of that ſtupendous empire.

In the gulf of Tunquin, and adjacent Chineſe ſea, the tuffoons, or as they have been quaintly latiniſed, *typhons*, are tremendous. "They are preceded by very fine weather, a preſaging cloud appears in the north-eaſt, black near the horizon, edged with copper colour on the upper part, fading into a glaring white. It often exhibits a ghaſtly appearance twelve hours before the typhon burſts; its rage laſts many hours from the north-eaſt, attended with dreadful claps of thunder, large and frequent flaſhes of lightning, and exceſſive hard rains. Then it ſinks into

a dead calm, after which it begins again with redoubled rage from the fouth-weſt, and continues an equal length of time."[1]

The deſcription of the various kingdoms of exterior India being thus completed, as far as the preſent deſign and the imperfect materials would admit, the geographical progreſs muſt return to the weſtward, and diſcuſs the wide regions of Hindoſtan, a difficult but intereſting theme.

[1] Pennant, Outlines, iii. 76.

HINDOSTAN.

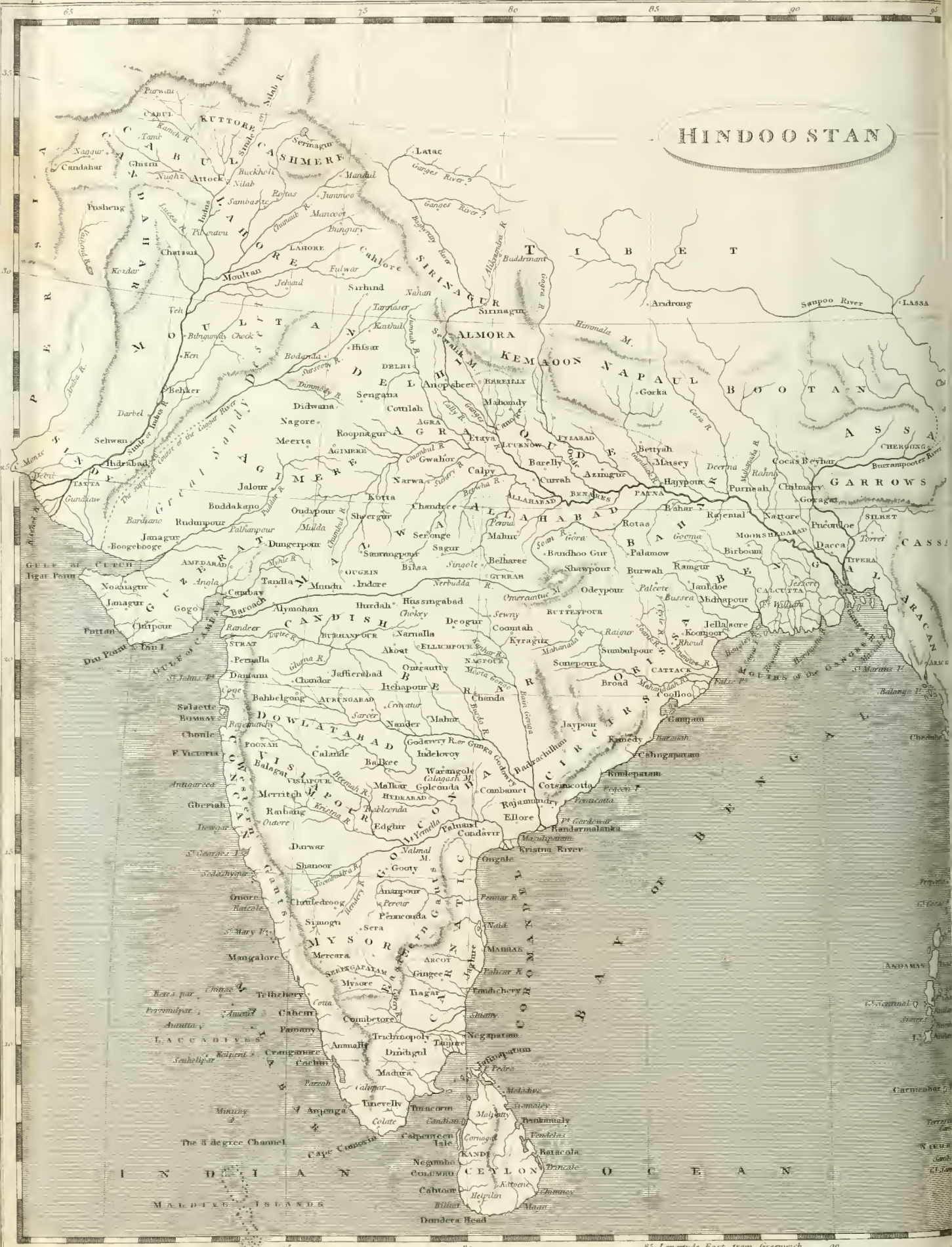
INTRODUCTION.

General Obſervations.—Arrangement.—Natural and Political Diviſions.—Plan of the preſent Deſcription.

GENERAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE deſcription of this intereſting portion of Aſia is not a little difficult, from its vaſt and irregular extent, from the want of grand ſubdiviſions, from the diverſity of nations and powers, large foreign ſettlements, and other cauſes, ſo that the firſt object muſt be to determine a clear and natural arrangement. Far from being impreſſed with this circumſtance, geographers ſeem deſirous to increaſe the embarraſſment, by including the regions called India beyond the Ganges, whence the confuſion becomes more confounded.

Mr. Pennant, who often excels in geographical delineation, has, in his View of Hindoſtan, been contented with the vague diviſions of Weſtern, Eaſtern, and Gangetic, or that part which is pervaded by the Ganges and its tributary ſtreams. His deſcription is alſo in the form of an itinerary, of all others perhaps the leaſt adapted to general geography. Major Rennell, to whom we are indebted for an excellent map and memoir, which have thrown great light on Indian geography, firſt conſiders the ſea coaſts and iſlands; as, in the conſtruction of a map, the outline of the coaſt is the earlieſt object. He then deſcribes Hindoſtan in four other ſections: 1. That part occupied by the Ganges and its principal branches: 2. That occupied by the courſe of the Sindé, Sindeh, or river Indus: 3. The track ſituated between the river Kiſtna and the two former diviſions: 4. The countries to the ſouth of the Kiſtna,


HINDOOSTAN
Cabul
Kuttore
Cashmere
Lahore
Moultan
Sirinagur
Almora
Kemaoon
Napaul
Bootan
Assam
Tibet
Delhi
Agra
Oude
Allahabad
Bahar
Bengal
Garrows
Cachar
Silhet
Cassay
Tipera
Arracan
Ajimere
Gandwana
Candish
Dowlatabad
Mysore
Carnatic
Malabar
Cimbatore
Travancore
Cicacole
Orissa
Cattack
Golconda
Hyderabad
Visapour
Balagat
Concan
Guzerat
Cambay
Ahmedabad
Malwa
Gurrah
Nagpour
Berar
Candeish
Aurungabad
Bijapour
Goa
Bombay
Surat
Sindy
Multan
Attock
Peshawer
Candahar
Ghizni
Cabul
Kashmir
Lahore
Delhi
Agimere
Oude
Allahabad
Bahar
Bengal
Nagpour
Berar
Golconda
Carnatic
Mysore
Malabar
Travancore
Cimbatore
Orissa
Cattack
Ceylon
Maldive Islands
Laccadives
Andamans
Nicobars
Tibet
Bootan
Napaul
Kemaoon
Almora
Sirinagur
Lahore
Moultan
Cabul
Kuttore
Cashmere
Delhi
Agra
Oude
Allahabad
Bahar
Bengal
Garrows
Cachar
Silhet
Cassay
Tipera
Arracan
Ajimere
Gandwana
Candish
Dowlatabad
Mysore
Carnatic
Malabar
Travancore
Cimbatore

Kiſtna, or what is perhaps improperly called the ſouthern peninſula, as no part of Hindoſtan can be ſtyled a peninſula, in the modern acceptation of being nearly ſurrounded by the ſea, and if we introduce proximity of rivers, the number of cherſoneſes might appear infinite. General Geography.

It might ſeem that an eaſy arrangement would ariſe from dividing Hindoſtan into the four points of Eaſtern, Northern, Weſtern, and Southern: but in this proceſs the northern could not well be ſeparated from the Weſtern, as both are connected by the courſe of the Indus, and the deficiency of natural boundaries muſt be ſupplied by arbitrary and imaginary lines.

After long conſideration, the general plan adopted by Major Rennell ſeems the beſt, not only in itſelf, as was to have been expected from his profound acquaintance with the ſubject, but as having the advantage of being familiar to the public, from the widely diffuſed reputation of his work. Amidſt the want of important ranges of mountains, rivers alone can be aſſigned as natural diviſions; and as in Hindoſtan they do not form limits, the countries pervaded by their courſes and tributary ſtreams may be conſidered as detached by the hand of nature. Hence the Gangetic part of Hindoſtan, to uſe Mr. Pennant's term, includes the ſpace from the confines of Tibet to the ſources of the Chumbul and Sippra, and from the mountains near Agimere and Abugur hills, to the moſt eaſtern boundary of Hindoſtan. General Diviſion.

That portion watered by the Sindé or Indus, and its ſubſidiary ſtreams, may in like manner be termed Sindetic Hindoſtan; as a ſupplement to this diviſion may be conſidered the country of Sirhind, and other tracts to the weſt of Gangetic Hindoſtan.

The ſouthern part is encompaſſed by the ſea, except on the north, where the river Kiſtna and its ſubſidiary ſtreams form the boundary. In ancient times this portion was ſtyled Deccan, a native term implying the ſouth. But the Deccan of the Hindoos extended twice as far in a northerly direction, even to the river Nerbudda; ſo that it would in fact, with the Gangetic and Sindetic diviſions, nearly complete the whole of Hindoſtan. The term Deccan is therefore here uſed for the portion to the ſouth of the Kiſtna.

General Division.

That portion on the north of the Kiſtna, reaching to Gangetic Hindoſtan on the north and eaſt, and the Sindetic with its ſupplementary provinces on the north and weſt, may be ſtyled Interior or Central Hindoſtan.*

In this arrangement the Gangetic part will include Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, Oude, Agra, and a part of Delhi and Agimere. The Sindetic contains Kuttore, Caſhmir, Cabul, Candahar, Lahore, Moultan, and Sindé.

The Central diviſion repreſents Guzerat in the weſt, with Candeiſh, Berar, Oriſſa, the Sircars, the chief part of Golconda, Viſiapour, Dowlatabad, and Concan.

The ſouthern diviſion includes a ſmall portion of Golconda, Myſore, the extenſive region called in modern times the Carnatic, with Madura, and other ſmaller diſtricts, the weſtern coaſt being called that of Malabar, and the eaſtern that of Coromandel. In this part is naturally included the iſland of Ceylon.

Political Diviſion.

The next topic to be conſidered, in a general view of Hindoſtan, is its political ſituation as divided among various powers. Of theſe the Engliſh is at preſent preponderant, not only from European tactics, but from an actual extent of territory at leaſt equal to that of any native power. To our former wide poſſeſſions in Gangetic Hindoſtan, with a large portion of the eaſtern coaſt from below the eſtuary of the Kiſtna to the lake of Chilka, and the detached government of Madras, have been recently added extenſive regions in the ſouth and weſt of Myſore, with Seringapatam the capital, not to mention Bombay, and other detached eſtabliſhments. And the large and important iſland of Ceylon has been wreſted from the Dutch.

Next in conſequence are the Maratta ſtates, chiefly contained in the central diviſion of Hindoſtan.

The Nizam, or Soubah of the Deccan, our firm ally, has conſiderably enlarged his territory in the ſouth at the expence of Tippoo; the central part of whoſe dominions, except Seringapatam, is ſubject to the

* If ſcientific geographers had the privilege, uſurped by travellers and mariners, of impoſing new names and diviſions, the above partitions might be ſtyled in native terms Gangeſtan, Sindeſtan, while Deccan might be confined to the ſouthern part, and ſome native word applied to the middle or centrical diviſion.

Raja of Myſore, a deſcendant of the race dethroned by Hyder, an uſurper. POLITICAL DIVISION.

The Britiſh, the Marattas, and the Nizam, may be regarded as the three leading powers, to which may be added on the weſt, or on the Sindetic diviſion, the Seiks, and Zemaun Shah, or whatever prince holds the eaſtern diviſion of Perſia.

The following table, extracted, with a few alterations, from Major Rennell's memoir, will convey a more complete and ſatisfactory idea of this important topic.

I. BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

1. Bengal and Bahar, with the Zemindary of Benares.
2. Northern Sircars, including Guntoor.
*3. Barra Mahal, and Dindigul.
4. Jaghire in the Carnatic.
*5. The Calicut, Palicaud, and Coorga countries.

II. BRITISH ALLIES.

1. Azuph Dowlah. Oude.
2. Mahomed Alli. Carnatic.
3. Travancore, and Cochin.

III. MARATTA STATES.

POONA MARATTAS.

1. Malwa.
2. Candeiſh.
3. Part of Amednagur, or Dowlatabad.
4. Viſiapour.
5. Part of Guzerat.
6. ——— Agra.
7. ——— Agimere.
8. Allahabad.
9. Shanoor or Sanore, Bancapour, Darwar, &c. ſituated in the Dooab, or country between the Kiſtna and Toombudra rivers.

TRIBUTARIES.

1. Rajah of Jyenagur.
2. ——— Joodpour.
3. ——— Oudipour.
4. ——— Narwah.
5. ——— Gohud.
6. Part of Bundelcund.
7. Mahomed Hyat. Bopaltol.
8. Futty Sing. Amedabad.
9. Gurry Mundella, &c. &c.

BERAR MARATTAS.

1 Berar.
2. Oriſſa.

TRIBUTARY.

Bembajee.

* The countries thus marked, are acquiſitions from Tippoo Sultan under the late treaty of Seringapatam. To which muſt now be added Coimbetore, Canara, and other diſtricts acquired in 1799. See Rennell's Supplementary Map, dated 5th April 1800.

IV. NIZAM

POLITICAL DIVISION.

IV. NIZAM ALI, SOUBAH OF THE DECCAN.

1. Golconda.
2. Aurungabad.
3. Beder.
4. Part of Berar.
5. —— Adoni, Rachore, and Canoul.
6. Cuddapali. Cummum (or Combam) and Gandicotta (or Ganjecotta).
7. Part of Gooty, Adoni, and Canoul.
8. Part of the Dooab.
[9. Other diſtricts acquired in 1799.]

V. SEIKS.

Lahore, Moultan, and the weſtern parts of Delhi.

As the other great power chiefly extends over Perſia, and may be regarded as foreign, it only remains to mention the ſmall ſtates.

1. Succeſſors of Zabeda Cawn. Sehaurunpour.
2. Jats.
3. Pattan Rohillas. Furruckabad.
4. Adjig Sing. Rewah, &c.
5. Bundelcund, or Bundela.
6. Little Ballogiſtan.

To which may now be added the Raja of Myſore.

The Britiſh poſſeſſions prior to the fall of Tippoo, 1799, were ſuppoſed to contain 197,496 ſquare Britiſh miles, being about 60,000 more than are comprized in the united kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland: the number of inhabitants was computed at ten millions. The acquiſition in 1799 probably adds 15,000 ſquare miles, and the population ſubject to Great Britain is ſuppoſed to be 12 or 14,000,000.[1] The net revenue exceeded three millions before the ceſſions by Tippoo in 1792, computed at 400,000l.; while thoſe in 1799 do not appear much to exceed half that ſum. This great power and revenue of ſo diſtant a country, maintained in the midſt of a highly civilized foreign nation, is perhaps unexampled in ancient or modern times.

The Marattas are divided into two ſtates or empires, that of Poona or the weſtern, and Berar, or the eaſtern; each ruled by a number of chiefs, or princes, who pay a nominal obedience to the Paiſhwa, or Sovereign. An account of the Marattas belongs to the central diviſion of Hindoſtan. The Seiks, a new religious ſect, firſt appeared in the middle of the ſeventeenth century, and have gradually become for-

[1] Sir William Jones ſays 30,000,000. Is not this an orientaliſm?

midable

midable to the neighbouring ſtates. The Jats, or Jets, were a tribe of Hindoos, who about a century ago erected a ſtate around the capital Agra. The Afghans, another peculiar people, originated from the mountains between Perſia and India. Political Division.

Before cloſing theſe general conſiderations with regard to this extenſive country, it may be proper to obſerve that the name of Hindoſtan has been conſidered as ſynonymous with the empire of the Great Mogul. But the power of the Monguls, which commenced under Baber, 1518, was moſt eminent in the northern parts, the Deccan, or ſouth remaining unſubdued till the time of Aurunzeb, 1678, when that region, with what is called the peninſula,* a few mountainous and inacceſſible tracts only excepted, were either vanquiſhed or rendered tributary to the throne of Delhi.[2] When Aurunzeb died in 1707, in his 90th year, the Mongul empire had obtained its utmoſt extent from the 10th to the 35th degree of latitude, (about 1750 Britiſh miles;) and about as much in length: the revenue exceeding thirty-two millions ſterling, in a country where proviſions are about four times as cheap as in England. The number of his ſubjects may be computed at about ſixty millions. But this great power declined ſo rapidly that, within fifty years after his death, it may be ſaid to have been annihilated, and the empire of the Great Mogul has vaniſhed from modern geography.

The plan to be purſued, in the ſubſequent brief account of Hindoſtan, has been above indicated as divided into four parts; the regions on the Ganges, thoſe on the Indus; the centrical and the ſouthern. In three of theſe diviſions the Britiſh poſſeſſions are powerful, if not predominant; and it is difficult to connect the political with the natural geography. Doubts may juſtly ariſe whether the Britiſh territories ought not to form a ſeparate and diſtinct portion in a perſpicuous arrangement, this being another of the peculiar difficulties which attend the geography of Hindoſtan. But as the grand maſs of the population Plan.

* Is not this abſurd term of peninſula, which Major Rennel juſtly blames, derived from Guthrie, or De la Croix?

[2] Rennel's Memoir, page lxi.

Plan. in theſe ſettlements conſiſts of native Hindoos, and the natural geography of the country muſt not be ſacrificed to any extraneous conſideration, it ſtill ſeems preferable to abide by the diviſion already laid down. If indeed the political geography were preferred, in deſcribing this vaſt portion of Aſia, any ſuch arrangement would prove of a moſt fleeting and temporary complexion, as the revolutions and variations are ſo frequent and rapid. Hence that form of deſcription muſt be choſen, which, reſting on the perpetual foundations of nature, cannot be injured or obliterated by the deſtinies of man.

Theſe conſiderations being premiſed a ſimilar arrangement ſhall here be followed in deſcribing Hindoſtan, a labyrinth of eaſtern geography, with that uſed in delineating Germany, that labyrinth of European geography. A general view of the whole region ſhall be followed by ſucceſſive chapters on each of the above diviſions; in which the ſeveral ſtates, chief cities, and other geographical topics, ſhall be briefly illuſtrated.

CHAPTER I.

General View of Hindostan.

Name.—Boundaries.—Original Population.—Progreſſive Geography.—Hiſtory.—Chronology.—Hiſtorical Epochs.—Ancient Monuments.—Mythology.—Religion.—Government.—Laws.—Population.—General Revenues.—Political Importance.—Manners and Cuſtoms.—Languages.—Literature.—Ancient Civilization.—Univerſities.—Inland Navigation.—Manufactures.—Native Products.—Climate and Seaſons.—General Face of the Country.—Soil.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Deſert.—Foreſts.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Mineral Waters.—Natural Curioſities.

Name.

THE native name of this celebrated country is ſaid to be in the ancient Sanſcrit language Bharata,[1] That of Hindoſtan ſeems to have been impoſed by the Perſians, and derived, like the claſſical name India, from the great weſtern river, with the Perſian termination *Tan*, or *Stan* which ſignifies a country. It was long known, as already mentioned, by the name of the Empire of the Great Mogul, becauſe it was then ſubject to Mongul emperors, ſucceſſors of Timur.

Boundaries.

This portion of Aſia extends from cape Comari, called by navigators Comorin, in the ſouth, to the mountains which form the northern boundary of Caſhmir; that is, according to the moſt recent maps, from about the eighth to about the thirty-fifth degree of northern latitude, being twenty ſeven degrees, or 1620 g. miles, nearly equal to 1890 Britiſh. The northern boundary may be yet further extended to the Hindoo Koh, and mountains running E and W on the north of the province of Kuttore.

From the river Araba, on the weſt of the province of Sindi, to the mountains which divide Bengal from Caſſay and the Birman dominions, that is from about the ſixty-ſixth to the ninety-ſecond degree of eaſt

[1] Rennel, xx. from Wilkins: but the proper native term ſeems to be Medhyama, and Bharat was the firſt king. Aſ. Reſ. i. 419.

Boundaries. longitude from Greenwich, there are 26°, which in the latitude of 25° conſtitute a breadth of more than 1400 g. miles, or 1600 Britiſh. Comparatively, if we exclude Scandinavia, the former kingdom of Poland, and the Ruſſian empire, the extent may be conſidered as equal to that of the remainder of Europe.

The boundaries are marked on the north by the mountains abovementioned. On the weſt, towards Perſia, other ranges and deſarts conſtitute the frontier till the ſouthern ſeparation end in the river of Araba. The other boundaries are ſupplied by the Indian ocean, and Bay of Bengal, where the eaſtern extremity is limited by the little river Naaf, and thoſe mountains which divide the Britiſh poſſeſſions from Aracan, Caſſay, and Caſhar. The northern boundary generally conſiſts of the ſouthern ridges of the Tibetian Alps. On the N. E. of Bengal a ſimilar ridge divides Hindoſtan from the ſmall territory of Aſam, which ſeems an independent ſtate, never having formed a portion of Hindoſtan, of dubious connection with Tibet, and as yet unſubdued by the Birmans.*

Original Population. The original population may be generally conſidered as indigenous, or in other words peculiar to the country. Yet in ſo extenſive a region, and amidſt the great diverſity of climate and ſituation, the native race preſents conſiderable varieties, eſpecially as being fairer in the northern parts, and in the ſouthern almoſt or wholly black, but without the negro wool or features.† Still the tinge of the women and ſuperior claſſes is deep olive, with ſometimes a ſlight and agreeable mixture of the ruddy, and the Hindoo form and features may be ſaid to approach the Perſian or European ſtandard. The ſole ancient conqueſts of Hindoſtan having proceeded from the N. W. and Weſt, there may be ſome ſlight admixture of the Perſians, of the Greeks of Bactriana, of the ancient Scythians, who appear to have proceeded from Imaus, and to have held a conſiderable country on the Indus, being the Indo-Scythæ of antiquity. More recently Mahmud of Ghizni, in-

* A deſcription of Aſam may be found in the ſecond volume of the Aſiatic Reſearches, page 171 octavo edit. and ſome idea of this country will be given in the account of the river Burrampooter, which will follow that of the Ganges.

† Yet even in ſpeaking of Bengal Sir William Jones terms the natives *blacks*. He ſays Aſ. Reſ. IV. xxiii. that in Hindoſtan there are not leſs than thirty millions of *black* Britiſh ſubjects.

troduced

troduced a groupe of Mahometans of various origins, The Patans, or Afgans proceeded from the mountains towards Perſia, being aſſerted to be a tribe of Albanians who emigrated to the eaſtward.* The Monguls are well known to have included many Tatars, and Mahometan tribes from the eaſt of the Caſpian. Theſe, with the Arabs and Perſians, are generally called Moors. ORIGINAL POPULATION.

The progreſſive geography of Hindoſtan may be ſaid to begin with the victories of Alexander the Great, for the fables concerning Seſoſtris and Bacchus deſerve no attention; and though the Perſians appear to have made early conqueſts, and to have poſſeſſed no ſmall knowledge of India, yet their ſcience was loſt to civilized Europe. After the age of Alexander many Greek and Roman authors, particularly Strabo, Arrian, and Pliny, have left information concerning the ſtate of India. One of the moſt important ancient records is the deſcription and map of Ptolemy, but they are ſo much diſtorted as to embarraſs the moſt learned enquirer. Far from repreſenting India in its juſt form, as ſtretching far to the ſouth, he ſuppoſes the ocean to flow from the gulph of Cambay, almoſt in a line to the lake of Chilka, thus immerſing under the waves a third part of Hindoſtan. At the ſame time he aſſigns to the iſland of Taprobana, or Ceylon, an enormous and fabulous extent. This, the moſt ſingular error of his whole ſyſtem, has been attempted to be explained by M. Goſſellin,[2] who ſuppoſes that the Taprobana of Ptolemy is the Deccan, or ſouthern part of Hindoſtan, from Surat to Cape Comorin, a ſtrait being ſuppoſed to paſs from the gulph of Cambay to the eaſtern ſhore of Oriſſa; and he infers that ſome of the ancients believed in this ſtrait. The idea is ingenious, and ably illuſtrated, yet is far from being ſatisfactory. 1. Ptolemy's map of Taprobana is a tolerably juſt repreſentation of Ceylon; and the Progreſſive Geography.

* The Avghans, or Afgans, pretend that their founder removed from the mountains of Armenia to thoſe of Candahar. Colonel *Gaerber* takes it for granted that the Affghans whom he found near Derbent, were deſcendants of the Albani; and Dr. *Reineggs* contends that the names of the two people are in fact the ſame. The Armenians (ſays he) cannot pronounce the letter L in the middle of a word, but call the Albans Agvhans, as they call Kalaki, Kaghaki, &c. Ellis's Memoir, page 6. Sir William Jones, Aſ. Reſ. ii. 76, warmly recommended an enquiry into the hiſtory of the Afgans, and ſays that their language reſembles the Chaldaic. It ſhould be compared with that of the other Caucaſian tribes.

[2] Geographie des Grecs Analyſée, page 133.

Progressive Geography.

numerous iſlands which he places near it are the Maldives; which, in a fair acceptation of his ſenſe, muſt have been much further to the north, to have correſponded with Goſſellin's opinion. The Ganges of Taprobana is the Mowil Ganga of Ceylon: the Soana, in the weſt, may alſo have a correſponding modern name, but cannot be the Soan which runs to the eaſt into the great Ganges. 2. Taprobana is thinly peopled with a few tribes, unknown in ancient deſcriptions of India; and the whole form, and central ridge of mountains bear no reſemblance whatever to the Deccan, but on the contrary approximate nearly to thoſe of Ceylon. 3. The long ſtrait mentioned by Goſſellin is unknown in the map of Ptolemy, which on the contrary rather juſtly repreſents the ſea between the coaſt of Coromandel and Ceylon, and his iſle of *Cory* ſeems to be that now corruptly called *Cow* iſland: on the contrary a long ſtrait muſt have been neceſſary, if Ptolemy had intended the Deccan, which is far wider in the north, than in the ſouth; whereas Taprobana is repreſented narrower, like Ceylon. 4. The *Commaria* of Ptolemy ſeems palpably to repreſent Cape Comari, or Comorin, and that geographer juſtly adds that it is an *extreme* promontory: in like manner other rivers, regions, towns, &c. may be traced in Ptolemy's India, which really belonged to the Deccan, though the latitudes be very erroneous.

Upon the whole it ſeems evident that Ptolemy has been miſled in his delineation of India, by information ſo groſsly fallacious as cannot be eaſily accounted for; but the candid apology of an able judge ought not to be omitted, eſpecially as it relates to the greateſt error of the father of geographical preciſion.[3] "We ought to reflect that Ptolemy's ideas were collected from the people who ſailed along the coaſt, and who deſcribed what they had ſeen and heard without regard to what lay beyond it: and moreover made uſe of too wide a ſcale; as commonly happens when the ſphere of knowledge is confined, and the geographer works *ad libitum*, from the coaſt towards the interior of an unknown continent. Whoever conſults Ptolemy's map of India ſhould carry theſe ideas in his mind: that the conſtruction of it is founded on three lines; one of which is that of the whole coaſt, from the gulph of

[3] Rennell, 241.

Cambay

Cambay round to the Ganges; a ſecond, the courſe of the Indus, and the gulphs of Cutch and Cambay; and the third, the common road from the Panjab to the mouths of the Ganges. The objects within theſe lines have a relative dependance on each line reſpectively; and are invariably placed at too great a diſtance within them: it therefore happens that an object which ſhould have occupied a place near one of the lines is thruſt towards the middle of the map; and this being a general caſe, places on oppoſite ſides of India are crowded together, as Arcot and Sagur *(Saghedi)* are. At the ſame time the central parts are wholly omitted; as being in reality unknown." Our learned geographer does not however explain how Ptolemy's map of Ceylon happened to repreſent that iſland five times too large. A ſimilar inſtance indeed occurs in Biſhop Leſlie's map of Scotland, in which the iſle of Hirta, or St. Kilda, is repreſented as three times as large as Mull; and perhaps the extent of Taprobana was in like manner ſwelled from its celebrity; or drawn by ſome mariner, and followed by Ptolemy in his deſcription without obſerving the ſize of the ſcale. PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

However this be, there can be no doubt that D'Anville, in his large map of the world as known to the ancients, 1763, has in general aſſigned the names given by Ptolemy to their juſt poſitions, though Goſſellin correct with great juſtice that able geographer's delineation of India beyond the Ganges. It would be foreign to the preſent purpoſe to enter into any detail; but a few names of rivers may be indicated.

After the Indus the rivers delineated by Ptolemy on the weſtern coaſt are the Mophides, the Namadus, followed by a large river with a Delta called the Nanaguna, which is ſucceeded by two ſmall ſtreams, the Pſeudaſtomus and the Baris. It is well known that no river of any length flows to the weſt, after paſſing the Taptee of Surat, but navigators unacquainted with the interior may eaſily have miſtaken creeks for eſtuaries; and D'Anville ſuppoſes that Baris, the moſt ſouthern, is in the neighbourhood of Goa. It is however to be wiſhed that a map of ancient India were conſtructed from Ptolemy, and other authorities, applied to the recent information contained in Major Rennell's excellent map. Nor is it eaſy to conceive how D'Anville came to de-

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lineate a falſe Ganges, in the centre of the eaſtern coaſt, inſtead of the Manda, or the Tyndis of Ptolemy.

This celebrated country received little further illuſtration till the ſixth century, when the intelligence of Coſmas is of no conſequence, except as it elucidates the Perſian traffic with India. Some materials may alſo be derived from the accounts of the Mahometan travellers, in the ninth century; and the oriental works of geography; nor was the great Engliſh king, Alfred, incurious concerning this celebrated region.* Marco Polo, the father of eaſtern geography, as known to Europeans, was followed by other travellers; and at length the Portugueſe diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope gradually led the way to the preciſion of modern knowledge; to which a recent geographer, Major Rennell, has contributed with great ſucceſs, and deſerved celebrity.

Hiſtory.

The hiſtory of Hindoſtan is a moſt obſcure and embroiled ſubject, as either no native chronicles were written, or they were deſtroyed by the Bramins, anxious to obliterate the memory of former and happier ages, when their inordinate power was not eſtabliſhed. Sir William Jones, and Anquetil du Perron, have beſtowed ſome attention on this ſubject; but their inveſtigations are more intereſting to the antiquary than to the general reader.† The native traditions ſeem to deſcribe the northern part of Hindoſtan as ſubject to one Raja, or Sovereign; which is little probable, as the moſt ancient extraneous accounts repreſent this wide country divided, as was to be expected, into many monarchies. By all accounts however the Deccan, or ſouthern part, was ſubject to a diſtinct emperor, even to modern times. Major Rennell obſerves that Feriſhta's hiſtory of the Deccan opens to our view the knowledge of an empire that has ſcarcely been heard of in Europe. "Its emperors of the Bahmineah dynaſty, (which commenced with Haſſan Caco, A.D, 1347,) appear to have exceeded in power and ſplen-

* The Saxon chronicle, and other Engliſh writers mention that Suithelm Biſhop of Shireburn carried a preſent from Alfred to the ſhrine of St. Thomas in India, and returned in ſafety with ſome curioſities from the country. This Thomas was not the Apoſtle but ſome Neſtorian miſſionary; and his ſhrine is at Melapour, near Madras, on the coaſt of Coromandel. Alfred little foreſaw that an Engliſh ſettlement was to include this holy ground.

† Aſiatic Reſearches, vol. ii. and Bernoulli's collection concerning India, Berlin, 1786, 4to tome ii. (not *Bernouilli*, as Dr. Robertſon always ſpells the name.)

dour

dour thoſe of Delhi, even at the moſt flouriſhing periods of their hiſtory. The ſeat of government was at Calberga, which was centrical to the great body of the empire, and is at this day a conſiderable city: Like other overgrown empires it fell to pieces with its own weight: and out of it were formed four potent kingdoms, under the names of Viſiapour, (properly Bejapour), Golconda, Berar, and Amednagur; of whoſe particular limits and inferior members we are not well informed. Each of theſe ſubſiſted with a conſiderable degree of power until the Mogul conqueſt; and the two firſt, as we have ſeen above, preſerved their independency until the time of Aurungzebe."[4] History.

The Hindoo chronology, publiſhed by Anquetil du Perron, is that of the Ragias, Rajas, or ſovereigns of Bengal; and the moſt remarkable facts are repeated invaſions by the Perſians, one of them ſuppoſed to be fourteen centuries before the chriſtian era. This kingdom of Bengal ſeems to have included almoſt the whole of Gangetic Hindoſtan, being perhaps that of the Praſii, or Gangaridæ of claſſical authors. But the names and extent of the early kingdoms of Hindoſtan are little known or inveſtigated, and no credit can be lent to the fabulous poems, tales, and traditions, which repreſent this immenſe country as ſubject to one ſovereign, an event which probably never occurred, till the reign of Aurunzeb, and may probably never again happen.* Chronology.

The Hindoo epochs conſiſting of millions of years, and other fabulous circumſtances, have hitherto attracted more attention than Hiſtorical Epochs.

[4] Rennell, lxxix.

* Alexander found two or three kingdoms in the Panjab, and the great Porus had only an army of 34,000. The Arabic travellers in the 9th century mention the *Balhara*, the moſt powerful prince in India by all the oriental accounts, in Guzerat. He is the *Belhar* of Abulfeda, who extends his dominions to Chanbalic, or China.

In the tenth century Maſſoudi deſcribes Hindoſtan as divided into four kingdoms: 1. On the Indus, capital Moultan: 2. Canoge on the Ganges, perhaps including Bengal on the eaſt: 3. Caſhmir: 4. Guzerat, the ſovereign of which he calls the Balhara. He had himſelf viſited the country. Roberts. 225.

It ſeems clear that Hindoſtan, like other countries, became gradually reduced to fewer ſovereignties: and the tales of the Bramins, or Feriſhta, a modern author, can never overturn theſe facts.

Add the recent diſcovery of the kingdom of Carnada, in the ſouth; of which the capital was Bijanagur (View of the Deccan 1791, and Rennell's laſt memoir.) Scaliger de Subtil. mentions that the diamond was found fifteen days journey beyond this city, in the mountain of Ahingar: this implies Golconda.

a clear

Historical Epochs.

a clear arrangement of the Hindoo ſovereignties, and an account of the moſt authentic facts that can be recovered concerning them. While theſe chronologies differ by one or two thouſand years concerning the incarnation of Buddha, we may judge of their exactneſs in leſs important events. Nor is it neceſſary to dwell on the children of the ſun and moon, who reigned at Audh and Vitora; or the new dynaſty of Magadha, or Bahar. The ſeventy ſix princes, who are ſaid to have reigned one thouſand three hundred and ninety nine years in Avabhriti, a town of the Dacſhin, or ſouth, which we commonly call Deccan, are ſlightly mentioned by Sir William Jones, who, with all his learning and talents, appears to be bewildered in the miſt of Sanſcrit mythological hiſtory.

Suffice it to obſerve that the Hindoos never ſeem to have boaſted of one native hiſtorian, and the beſt materials are derived from Perſian memoirs; from which Feriſhta, himſelf a Perſian, compiled his hiſtories of Hindoſtan towards the beginning of the ſeventeenth century. Indeed in the whole complex maze of Hindoo literature there is a ſtriking deficiency of good ſenſe.* The more we are acquainted with Indian philoſophy, the leſs veneration we entertain; and are led to infer that the admiration of the ancients was rather excited by the ſingularity than by the wiſdom of the Brahmans. The heat, and other peculiar circumſtances, of the climate have confeſſedly a degrading influence on the mind, which inſtead of bearing ſolid fruits here ſhoots into fantaſtic flowers. The political inſtitutions muſt have been originally bad, as the great maſs of the people was oppreſſed by one or two privileged caſts, whence the diſpirited natives were conquered by every invader. And the abſurd philoſophy of the Brahmans, for that philoſophy muſt be abſurd which delights in mythological dreams, the moſt fanatical practices, and common ſuicide; which may be ſaid to cruſh all genius or exertion by the oppreſſive chains of caſt, unknown to nature and pro-

* Mr. Bentley obſerves, Aſ. Reſ. v, 315. that the Hindoo æras and dates are all blended together into one maſs of abſurdity and contradiction. A curious inſtance of this appears with regard to the celebrated temples of Ellora, and the ſingular fortreſs of Deoghir, or Dowlatabad, formed on a high conic rock; for the Mahometans, whom we Europeans regard as rather extravagant in chronology, ſay that they were erected 900 years ago; while the Bramins affirm that they have ſtood not leſs than 7894 years! Aſ. Reſ. vi. 385.

vidence;

vidence; which has never in peace or war produced one man diſtinguiſhed by ſupereminent talents; ſuch philoſophy muſt be conſidered as far inferior to the plain good ſenſe even of ſome other Aſiatic nations. In ſhort the hiſtory of Hindoſtan has only to be contraſted with that of China, to evince the ſuperiority of practical good ſenſe over theoretic wiſdom and philoſophy, which are often mere hotbeds of new eccentricities and follies. And though mankind have in all ages wondered at the ſingularities of the Indian ſophiſts, yet not one general precept of wiſdom, not one rule for the conduct of life, not one diſcovery generally uſeful to mankind, can be traced to that celebrated and miſerable country, where paſſive millions drag a feeble exiſtence under the iron rod of a few crafty caſts, amidſt a climate and a ſoil almoſt paradiſaical, and where it ſeemed impoſſible for human malignity to have introduced general degradation and diſtreſs.* HISTORICAL EPOCHS.

As there is thus no native hiſtory, and we know little more from their traditions, than that the empire of Hindoſtan proper in the north was diſtinct from that of Deccan in the ſouth, we muſt be contented with the epochs derived from foreign records.

1. The invaſion by Alexander the Great, who found weſtern India divided among numerous potentates, though he advanced little further than Lahore. If even the northern half of Hindoſtan had been ſubject to one ſovereign, as fabled in the native tales, the circumſtance would have been clear and apparent.

2. At a long interval appears the conqueſt of the north weſtern part by Mahmoud of Ghizni, A. D. 1000.

3. The dynaſty of the Patan, or Aſſghan emperors begins with Cuttub, A. D. 1205, and ends with Mahmoud III, 1393.

* A writer in the Aſiatic Reſearches (vi. 163.), after obſerving that the worſhip of Boodha extended over all Hindoſtan, and was not rooted out in the Deccan till about the twelfth century by the Bramins, who are the real heretics, and far from introducing any reformation have increaſed all the abſurdities and puerilities a thouſand fold, proceeds to give the following juſt character of thoſe viſionary ſophiſts. "No uſeful ſcience have the Brahmens diffuſed among their followers; hiſtory they have totally aboliſhed; morality they have depreſſed to the utmoſt; and the dignity and power of the altar they have erected on the ruins of the ſtate, and the rights of the ſubject. Even the laws attributed to Menu, which, under the form in uſe among the Burmas, are not ill ſuited for the purpoſe of an abſolute monarchy, under the hands of the Brahmens have become the moſt abominable and degrading ſyſtem of oppreſſion, ever invented by the craft of deſigning men."

Historical Epochs.

4. The Great Moguls, or Mongul Emperors begin with Baber, 1525; and continued, with a ſhort interruption, by the Patans to Shah Aulum, 1760.

The invaſion by Timur, and at a diſtant interval that by Nadir, alſo form remarkable epochs in the hiſtory of this paſſive country. The latter may be ſaid to have virtually diſſolved the Mogul empire. The Portugueſe ſettlements were followed by thoſe of the Dutch. The French power began to predominate in 1749, but ſpeedily cloſed in 1761, with the loſs of their principal ſettlement, Pondicherry. As merchants the Engliſh had long held ſmall ſettlements in Hindoſtan, but the expedition into Tanjore, 1749, was the firſt enterprize againſt a native prince. Other conteſts followed concerning Arcot in the kingdom of Carnada, or what we call the Carnatic. In 1756 the fort of Calcutta, our chief ſettlement in Bengal, was taken by the Nabob, and many of our brave countrymen periſhed in a ſhocking manner from being confined in a ſmall chamber. The battle of Plaſſey, fought in June, 1757, laid the foundation of the ſubſequent power of Britain. Lord Clive, Governor of Bengal, 1765, obtained a grant from the nominal Mogul, of Bengal, Bahar, and part of Oriſſa, on condition of an annual tribute. Soon after the Engliſh were engaged in a conteſt with Hyder Alli, a ſoldier of fortune who had dethroned the lineal ſovereign of Mayſſur, or Myſore, and extended his conqueſts to the adjacent territories. Some conflicts followed on the confines of Carnada and Myſore; but the event was little advantageous to either party. Hyder dying in 1783 was ſucceeded by his ſon Tippoo, who ſeems to have been a prince of inferior abilities, and expiated his ill arranged plans by his death, and the partition of his territories, in 1799.

The Bengal provinces have been in our poſſeſſion ſince 1765; and Benares was added in 1775. This portion might conſtitute a conſiderable kingdom, and is ſufficiently compact, and ſecure by natural advantages, independent of a formidable force. The Sircars, or detached provinces, partly belong to Golconda, and partly to Oriſſa, forming a long narrow ſlip of country from twenty to ſeventy five miles wide, but about three hundred and fifty in length. The word Sircar is almoſt ſynonymous with an Engliſh county, implying a diviſion of a Souba,

a Souba, or great province; and theſe detached Sircars, or counties, being to the north of Madras, on which they are dependant, are commonly ſtyled the Northern Sircars.[5] In 1754 they were acquired by the French; and conquered by the Engliſh under Colonel Clive in 1759. Historical Events.

The Engliſh ſettled at Madras about the year 1640; and their territory here extends about a hundred and eight Britiſh miles along the ſhore, and forty-ſeven in breadth, in the centre of the ancient kingdom of Carnada. The recent and extenſive acquiſitions in the ſouth have been already mentioned.

Nor among the modern hiſtorical epochs of Hindoſtan muſt the celebrated battle of Panniput, not far to the N. W. of Delhi, be omitted, which was fought in 1761, between the Mahometans under Abdalla King of Candahar, and the Marattas, in which the latter were defeated: the Mahometans were computed at 150,000, and the Marattas at 200,000.

The ancient monuments of Hindoſtan are very numerous, and of various deſcriptions, excluſive of the tombs and other edifices of the mahometan conquerors. Some of the moſt remarkable are excavated temples, ſtatues, relievos, &c. in an iſland near Bombay; but the moſt magnificent and extenſive are near the town of Ellora, about two hundred miles to the eaſt of Bombay.[6] The latter are minutely deſcribed and illuſtrated with plates in the ſixth volume of the Aſiatic Reſearches, to which the reader is referred. The idols repreſented ſeem clearly to belong to the preſent mythology of Hindoſtan; but at what period theſe edifices were modelled, whether three hundred, or three thouſand years ago, muſt be left in the darkneſs of Hindoo chronology. Several ancient grants of land, ſome coins, and ſeals, have alſo been found. Yet all theſe remains little correſpond with the exaggerated ideas entertained concerning the early civilization of this renowned country; while the Egyptian pyramids, temples, and obeliſks, ſtrongly confirm the accounts preſerved by the ancient hiſtorians. Ancient Monuments.

Though the mythology of the Hindoos may pretend to great antiquity, yet their preſent form of religion is ſuppoſed to vary conſider- Mythology.

[5] Rennell, cxxxiv.

[6] Aſ Reſ vol. i. and vi.

Mythology. ably from the ancient. It is inferred that while the religion of Boodha, ſtill retained by the Birmans and other adjacent nations, was the real ancient ſyſtem of Hindoſtan, the artful Bramins have introduced many innovations, in order to increaſe their own power and influence. Sir William Jones, and other intelligent authors on the ſubject are decidedly of this opinion, and caution us not to confound the ancient Brahmans with the modern Bramins. The chief modern deities are Brahma, Viſhna, and Shiva, or the creator, preſerver, and deſtroyer; while Boodha ſeems to have been the chief object of veneration in former periods. The mythology of Hindoſtan has been ably illuſtrated by Monſieur Roger, chaplain of the Dutch factory at Poolicat on the coaſt of Coromandel, in his curious book intitled *La Porte ouverte;* and in more recent times by Sir William Jones, and other able enquirers. In a ſyſtem ſo full of imagination it is no wonder that the analyſes are ſometimes diſcordant, but it appears that the fabric réſts on that almoſt univerſal ſyſtem of the eaſt, the belief in a Supreme Creator too ineffable and ſublime for human adoration, which is therefore addreſſed to inferior, but great and powerful divinities. The names and attributes of the gods and goddeſſes, for the voluptuous Hindoos delight in female divinities, are very numerous, and as human wants and ideas are almoſt univerſally the ſame, correſpond in many inſtances with the Greek and Roman polytheiſm.*

Religion. The religion of the Hindoos is artfully interwoven with the common offices of life; and the different caſts are ſuppoſed to originate from Brahma, the immediate agent of creation under the ſupreme power, in the following manner.

The *Brahmin*, from the mouth (wiſdom): To pray, to read, to inſtruct.

The *Chehteree*, from the arms (ſtrength): To draw the bow, to fight, to govern.

The *Bice*, from the belly, or thighs (nouriſhment): To provide the neceſſaries of life by agriculture and traffic.

The *Sooder*, from the feet (ſubjection): To labour, to ſerve.[7]

* In Sonnerat's decorated publication good repreſentations will be found of the chief Hindoo divinities.

[7] Robertſon's Diſquiſition, p. 338.

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The ancients ſometimes enlarged the number of theſe caſts, or perpetual orders of men, by an erroneous ſubdiviſion of two or more, yet it is impoſſible to read their accounts without perceiving that the caſts themſelves exiſted from time immemorial, but with one important variation. For it would appear that in ancient times the Brahmans, like the Prieſts, or Monks of Ava, Siam, and other ſtates which ſtill follow the worſhip of Boodh, were not hereditary, or a diſtinct levitical tribe, but that any member of the other caſts might enter into this order, which was of courſe deemed inferior to the chief ſecular, or military caſt. At preſent the meaneſt Bramin will not condeſcend to eat with his ſovereign. Setting the ridiculous and fanciful tales of this intereſted tribe wholly out of the queſtion, it would appear that, in the uſual circle of human affairs, a conteſt had ariſen between the regal and eccleſiaſtic powers. The latter, inſtead of being ſubdued as in China, and Japan, acquired the ſuperiority as in Tibet. But in Hindoſtan, from a moſt refined and cunning policy, the prieſthood aſſerted the divine inſtitution of the ſeveral caſts, and, as was natural, pronounced their own to be the ſupreme, and poſſeſſed of innate and hereditary ſanctity. It ſeems to be allowed that Boodh was a deified philoſopher; and it is probable that Brahma was the ſophiſt who invented the new caſts, and was not only deified, but placed in the firſt rank of the gods, by the grateful prieſthood, the ſole directors of the national mythology. Religion.

However this be, the religious tenets of the Hindoos are ſo artfully and cloſely interwoven with their exiſtence, that they are as diſtinct and peculiar a people as the Jews, and their converſion to chriſtianity ſeems even more hopeleſs. If the Zingari, or Gipſeys be, as is now credited, Pariars of the meaneſt Hindoo claſs, who fled from the cruelties of Timur, we may judge from the ſtate of that ſingular tribe, in the various countries of Europe, for theſe four centuries, that if the Hindoos themſelves ſhould be ſcattered they would remain, like the Jews, a marked and peculiar people.

Hindoſtan is now divided into many governments, the form of which muſt be conſidered in deſcribing the ſeveral ſtates. Suffice it here to obſerve, that though the Bramins be the moſt dignified caſt, yet there do not ſeem to have been one or more high prieſts, as in the Government.

Government. surrounding countries. This ſingularity remains to be explained by learned enquirers. The ſovereignty was abandoned to the military caſt, and the monarch was preſumed to be proprietor of all the lands, except thoſe belonging to the church. The Ryots held their poſſeſſions by a leaſe at a fixed rate, and conſidered as perpetual. The Zemindars were in the opinion of ſome only collectors of the royal rents from the Ryots, or farmers: but according to others the Zemindars were landed gentlemen, who had a hereditary right to theſe rents, upon paying a ſettled proportion to the crown. It is to be wiſhed that the moſt liberal European forms were introduced into our own eſtabliſhments, which might ſerve as a beneficent model to the ſurrounding nations.

Laws. The laws of the Hindoos are intimately blended with their religion, and the curious reader may conſult the code, tranſlated and publiſhed by the direction of Mr. Haſtings.

Population. The population of this extenſive part of Aſia is ſuppoſed to amount to ſixty millions, of which the Britiſh poſſeſſions may now perhaps contain a quarter, eſpecially as frequent recent conflicts have thinned the population in many other parts of Hindoſtan. When it is conſidered that China is about one quarter leſs than Hindoſtan, and yet is ſaid to contain three hundred and thirty millions, we may judge of the boaſted effects of Hindoo philoſophy, more fit for the viſionary cell of the recluſe, than to promote univerſal ſpirit and induſtry.

General Revenues. The general revenues of Hindoſtan were computed, in the time of Aurunzeb, as already mentioned, by a preciſe calculation of thoſe of the ſeveral provinces, at thirty-two millions ſterling; equal perhaps, conſidering the comparative price of products, to one hundred and ſixty millions ſterling in modern England.

Political Importance. The political importance and relations of Hindoſtan are now divided among many powers. So miſerable was the inteſtine conſtitution that this wide and populous country, defended on all ſides by ranges of mountains, has in all ages fallen a prey to every invader. The fantaſtic inſtitutions, like thoſe of the ancient Perſians, prevent the Hindoos from forming a maritime power; and even the ſmall fleets of

Siam

Siam and Pegu, which follow the more liberal doctrines of Boodh, seem unrivalled in the history of Hindostan. POLITICAL IMPORTANCE.

The manners and customs of the Hindoos are intimately blended with their religion, and are universally similar, with a few exceptions in mountainous and other peculiar districts. One of the most singular begins to expire, that of giving the living widow to the same flames with her husband's corpse. The ancients represent the Bramins as accustomed to terminate their own lives on funeral piles lighted by themselves. But by what refinement of cruelty this custom was extended to involuntary and helpless females has not appeared: perhaps the cause was to enforce the preservation of their husband's health by making their life depend on his.* But this and other monstrous institutions of the Bramins are treated with lenity, and even respect by many authors, who seem to inherit the Greek astonishment at these fanatics: Manners and Customs.

"And wonder with a foolish face of praise."

The other manners and customs of the Hindoos have been illustrated by many travellers. As soon as a child is born it is carefully registered in its proper cast; and astrologers are consulted concerning its destiny; for the Hindoos, like the Turks, are strict predestinarians. A Bramin imposes the name. The infant thrives by what we would call neglect; and no where are seen more vigour and elegance of form. The boys are generally taught reading and writing by Bramins, but the girls are confined at home till their twelfth year.[8] Polygamy is practised; but one wife is acknowledged as supreme: the ceremony is accompanied with many strange idolatrous forms, minutely described by the author last quoted. It is well known that the Hindoos are extremely abstemious, and wholly abstain from animal food and intoxicating liquors; yet if we judge from the fanatic penances, suicides, and other superstitious frenzies, no where on earth is the mind so much disordered. The houses and dresses are of the most simple kind; and nudity is no reproach to a Bramin. The houses are built of earth or bricks, covered with mortar, and sometimes with excellent cement; with no windows,

* This custom was chiefly enforced on the wives of Bramins.

[8] See a voyage to the East Indies by Fra. Paolino da San Bartolomeo, 1800, 8vo: the author's lay name was Wesdio, an Austrian.

Manners and Customs.

or only ſmall apertures. There is generally only a ground floor, incloſing a court, with a ſmall gallery ſupported by ſlight wooden pillars. The amuſements conſiſt of religious proceſſions; but though dancing girls abound, yet theatrical exhibitions do not ſeem ſo common as in the countries further to the eaſt.

Languages.

The general ancient language of Hindoſtan is believed to have been the Sanſcret, an original and refined ſpeech, compared by Sir William Jones with the Greek and Latin. The more common dialects are chiefly the following:[9]

1. That of Kandi in the interior of Ceylon, which is ſaid nearly to reſemble the Sanſcret.

2. The Tamulac, uſed in the Deccan, or ſouthern part, in Madura, Myſore, and ſome parts of the Malabar coaſt. Weſdin, who was converſant in it, pronounces it harmonious and eaſily acquired.

3. The Malabar language, extending from cape Comari to the mountain Illi, which divides Malabar from Canara. One of its alphabets is called the *Maleyam Tamul.* Perhaps this may be the primitive Malay language; but *Mala* in general implies a mountain, as *Gaut* does a paſs.

4. That of Canara, which extends as far as Goa.

" 5. The Maraſhda language. It is prevalent throughout the whole country of the *Maraſhdi*, who are very improperly called *Marattas.*

" 6. The Talenga, an harmonious, nervous, maſculine, copious, and learned language, which, like the Samſcred, has fifty two characters; and theſe are ſufficient to write the latter. It is ſpoken on the coaſt of Orixa, in Golconda, on the river Kiſhna, and as far as the mountains of Balangat. All theſe languages have their own alphabets: ſo that in every province you muſt make yourſelf acquainted with a diſtinct kind of characters, if you wiſh to expreſs your thoughts in the dialect common in each.

" 7. The common Bengal language: a wretched dialect, corrupted in the utmoſt degree. It has no V, and inſtead of it employs the B; ſo that inſtead of *Ved* you muſt write *Beda.* It is ſpoken at Calcutta; and in Bengal on the banks of the Ganges.

[9] Weſdin, 317.

" 8. The

" 8. The Devangaric, or Hindoſtan language; called by ſome Nagru, Nagari, and alſo Devanagari. It is ſpoken at Benares, or Venares, and conſiſts of fifty-two characters, with which you can write the Samſcred. Its mode of writing has been introduced into all the northern part of India. A ſpecimen of it may be ſeen in the firſt volume of the Aſiatic Reſearches. LANGUAGE.

" 9. The Guzaratic, which has been introduced not only into the kingdom of Guzarat, but alſo at Baroche, Surat, Tatta, and the neighbourhood of the Baſangat mountains. Its characters are little different from thoſe of the Devanagaric.

" 10. The Nepalic, which is ſpoken in the kingdom of Nepal, and has a great ſimilarity to the *Devanagaric*."

So far Weſdin; who adds his opinion, that all theſe languages proceed from the Sanſcret, which Sir William Jones imagines was tranſplanted from Perſia. Hindoſtan is in truth an excellent field for the inveſtigation of antiquaries, who may here confound hundreds of years with thouſands; and may diſpute for ever without arriving at any deciſion.

The literature of Hindoſtan doubtleſs contains ſeveral valuable and curious monuments; but the want of hiſtory and chronology renders their epochs extremely uncertain. A language may be antiquated in the courſe of a few centuries, as well as in the lapſe of ſome thouſands of years. But while the Hindoo literati compute by millions of ages, they forget that little diviſion called a century. There ſeems no chronology of authors who ſucceſſively quote or mention each other; and there is not even any great land mark, like the age of Confucius among the Chineſe. Hence little elſe than confuſion and contradiction are to be found in the numerous accounts publiſhed of Hindoo literature. Literature.

The moſt important books are the Vedas; one of which has nine ſections, and another one thouſand. It is to be hoped that theſe forgeries are more ancient than the Puranas, which have been demonſtrated by Mr. Bentley not to exceed ſeven centuries in antiquity.[19] There are ſome epic poems which pretend to contain fragments of

[19] Aſ. Reſ. vi.

Literature.

genuine hiſtory."[11] The moſt ancient, called Ramayana, was written by Valmici; and next in celebrity is the Mahabarat of Vyaſa, who is ſaid to have been the author of ſome Puranas, and of courſe could not have flouriſhed above ſeven hundred years ago: and it is probable that the more ancient poem cannot aſpire to a much higher date. It is a great ſingularity that the old Hindoo grants of land, many of which have been tranſlated and publiſhed, are extremely long, and in a ſtrange poetical or inflated ſtyle, ſome of the compound words conſiſting of not leſs than one hundred and fifty ſyllables! When we compare theſe ſingularities with the brevity and clearneſs of the Greek and Roman inſcriptions, and the unbiaſſed dictates of plain good ſenſe, we are led to conclude that the Hindoos are the puerile ſlaves of a capricious imagination. And though ſome tranſlations of their beſt works have already appeared, they have not acquired the ſmalleſt degree of European reputation; and have very little intereſted a few curious enquirers, though eager to be pleaſed. To compare ſuch tedious trifles, alike deſtitute of good ſenſe, vigorous genius, or brilliant fancy, with the immortal productions of Greece or Rome, would only confirm the idea, that the climate itſelf impairs judgement while it inflames imagination.

The Hindoos are ignorant of the Chineſe art of printing, and the materials uſed in their manuſcripts ſeem very periſhable; nor have we any rules for determining the antiquity of theſe manuſcripts. To an exact enquirer this would have been the firſt topic of inveſtigation; but it has on the contrary been completely neglected. We have merely the bold aſſertions of Bramins, eagerly imbibed by European credulity, inſtead of ſucceſſive arguments and proofs.

Ancient Civilization.

Dr. Robertſon conſiders the ancient and high civilization of the Hindoos, as eſtabliſhed by their diviſion into caſts; by their civil policy; by their laws; their uſeful and elegant arts; their ſciences and religious inſtitutions."[12] But the arguments of that able author ſeem liable to ſome objections. 1. The diſtinction into caſts is doubtleſs ancient and

[11] Aſ. Reſ. i. 340, a poet called Somadeva begins with the hiſtory of Nanda, King of Patna. Ib. iv. xviii.

[12] Diſquiſition, 257.

peculiar;

peculiar; but ſeems to have proceeded from a craſty prieſthood in order to fix their own ſuperiority and preponderance. The error of the Doctor's argument conſiſts in his confounding caſts with trades, while they are in truth totally diſtinct, as neither a prieſt, a ſoldier, a farmer, nor a labourer is a tradeſman. Separation of trades argues refinement; but from the Hindoo caſts nothing can be concluded, except that agriculture exiſted at their inſtitution. When our author adds, "what now is in India, always was there," he evinces rather a ſingular love of hypotheſis. All we know from antiquity is, that the caſts exiſted in the time of Strabo, Arrian, and Pliny, and perhaps were not known even in the time of Alexander. Suppoſe that they even exiſted three centuries before the chriſtian æra, we have only a proof that agriculture and merchandize were then known in Hindoſtan; and yet the firſt tribe that paſſed from the center of Aſia might, even in that caſe, have only begun to people the north of Hindoſtan a few centuries, or ſay a thouſand years before the chriſtian æra. 2. The civil policy is conſidered as proving early civilization, not indeed becauſe the Hindoo fables repreſent the whole country as ſubject to one monarch, but becauſe Alexander found kingdoms of ſome magnitude. But theſe kingdoms were no larger in proportion, than thoſe which Cæſar found in barbaric Gaul and Britain. The magnitude of the country is forgotten, inhabited by an indigenous people, and remarkably deſtitute of natural barriers. That ſome old inſtitutions remain is no wonder, when the identity of oriental cuſtoms is conſidered. 3. The laws are ſufficiently numerous and complex; but ſo are thoſe of England at preſent, though they were in a very different predicament ſix centuries ago; but our ingenious author ſpeaks familiarly of the Hindoo millions of years, and forgets our little centuries. The Hindoo code may be extremely ancient; and yet perhaps was written about the plain chriſtian year 1200. 4. The uſeful and elegant arts likewiſe require the illuſtration of chronology, and as there are no inſcriptions with clear authentic dates in the famous excavations in the iſle of Elephanta, in that of Salſett, or at Elora, it is impoſſible to pronounce concerning their antiquity, eſpecially as the mythology continues the ſame. Theſe, and other monuments, may perhaps be of great antiquity, but it is as probable that they were the

ANCIENT CIVILIZATION.

Ancient Civilization.

works of the famous Balharas, as of any imaginary Hindoo emperors, who only exiſt in the wild imaginations of the Bramins. The ruins of Perſepolis evince that the edifice could not have been erected ſince the Mahometans conquered that country in the ſeventh century. But where the religion continued pagan, and a ſplendid native monarchy exiſted till the ſixteenth century, to any ſober enquirer it will appear more rational to conclude that theſe monuments belong to the fifteenth century after Chriſt, rather than to the fifteenth century before. And this opinion will remain equally firm, if all the Bramins computed their duration by millions or billions of years. In like manner the detached temples in the ſouth may preſent magnificent proofs of Hindoo architecture in the *ſeventeenth* century. That the Hindoos could both make and dye linen and cotton is no proof of great ſocial progreſs. The ancients traded to India for ſpices, precious ſtones, and ſilk, but manufactured goods are ſcarcely mentioned. The uncertain antiquity of Hindoo literature has been already diſcuſſed. 5. As to the ſciences, the want of chronology is equally felt; and it is probable that the Hindoos might derive ſome knowledge from the Greeks of Bactria. The abſurd ſtudy of aſtrology, ſtill in the higheſt repute among the Bramins, has of courſe occaſioned a particular attention to be paid to aſtronomy; but the Chineſe, and perhaps even the Siameſe, rival the Hindoos in this ſcience, in which it is eaſy to calculate tables backward to any epoch;* and the Bramins perhaps have ſufficient patience to compute eclipſes, &c. which muſt have happened, if this planet had exiſted ten millions of years.† 6. In the laſt place, our moſt learned and reſpectable

* The Cali Yug was, like the Julian period, fixed by retroſpective computation. It begins about 3000 years before the chriſtian æra. Aſ. Reſ. iii. 224.

† The whole arguments of M. Bailly and others for the antiquity of the Hindoo aſtronomy ſeem at length to be completely overturned by a learned diſſertation of Mr. Bentley, publiſhed in the Aſiatic Reſearches 1799, (vi. 540, 8vo edit.) to which the curious reader is referred. The reſult is, that the ſyſtem ſo eagerly applauded, and ſuppoſed by M. Bailly, Dr. Robertſon, and others, to be of ſuch remote antiquity, cannot be of a greater age than *ſeven hundred and thirty-one* years. In other words, it was compoſed about A. D. 1068. "Therefore any Hindu work in which the name of Varàha or his ſyſtem is mentioned, muſt evidently be modern; and this circumſtance alone totally deſtroys the pretended antiquity of many of the Purans, and other books, which through the artifices of the Brahminical tribe have been hitherto deemed the moſt ancient in exiſtence." Thus the chief pillar of the antiquity of Hindoo ſcience has been torn down

reſpectable author conſiders the religious inſtitutions of the Hindoos as a proof of early and high civilization. Yet it is not a little ſingular that all his arguments concerning the regularity of the ſyſtem, the magnificent temples, &c. might have been applied to the Roman catholic ſyſtem in Scandinavia, in the year 1300; at which time it had not there exiſted above two centuries. The mythology of Hindoſtan is probably as ancient as its firſt population, and has been gradually expanded and refined like claſſical paganiſm. But the recent diſcovery, that the worſhip of Boodh preceded that of Brahma, could not have been foreſeen; and it is probable that in many reſpects the ancient ſyſtem differed moſt eſſentially from the modern. ANCIENT CIVILIZATION.

So much for the ancient civilization of the Hindoos, who are nevertheleſs at preſent in general highly civilized, and of the moſt gentle and amiable manners. But perhaps in no art nor ſcience are they equal to the Chineſe or Japaneſe; and in moſt are confeſſedly greatly inferior.

The chief univerſity in the north is that of Benares, a moſt celebrated and ancient ſchool, now included in the Engliſh poſſeſſions. In the Deccan the academy of Triciur, on the Malabar coaſt, is alſo in great repute, and according to our author: "At *Cangiburam*, in *Carnate*, there is ſtill a celebrated Brahman ſchool, which, according to the teſtimony of Ptolemy, exiſted in the firſt century of the chriſtian æra; and its members are certainly equal in celebrity to the Brahmans of *Vanares*, or *Benares*."[13] It is to be hoped that our recent acquiſitions in the ſouth will lead to the diſcovery of new literary treaſures in that quarter, where it is to be expected that native knowledge is more pure and perfect than in the north, where it was ſo long trampled under foot by the Mahometan conquerors. Univerſities.

down by this modern Sampſon, and many antiquaries have periſhed in the ruins. Perhaps the Vedas may be found to have been compoſed by the artful Bramins, in imitation of the Koran, or of the books aſcribed to Confucius, for the ancients do not mention any ſacred Hindoo code. Menu may have been an honeſt lawyer of the 13th century; and the whole Hindoo arts and ſciences, except weaving, be found to be derived from their neighbours. We may then exclaim as the Egyptian prieſts did to Plato, "Ye Hindoos, and even ye Bramins, ye always were, and remain children."

[13] Weſdin, 283.

With

Inland Navigation.

With reſpect to inland navigation Hindoſtan forms a ſtriking contraſt with China. In the fourteenth century Feroz III, of the Patan dynaſty, ordered ſome ſhort canals to be dug in the neighbourhood of Delhi; and had an intention as is ſaid of uniting the Ganges with the Indus, or Setlege. This intended canal, which would not have been above one quarter the length of the great canal of China, has been praiſed as a grand and wonderful deſign; a ſufficient proof of the great inferiority of the Hindoos, and their Mahometan victors, in the ſolid and uſeful arts.

Manufactures.

The manufactures of Hindoſtan have been celebrated from early antiquity, particularly the muſlins and other fabrics from cotton. Piece goods, as we call them, are mentioned by the author of the Periplus, and other ancient writers, who praiſe the manufacture and the beautiful colours with which it was dyed. The Hindoos, in the time of Strabo, were alſo noted for elegant works in metals and ivory. Theſe circumſtances however afford no proof of ſuch early civilization as is inferred; for the Romans, with the ſame materials, could at that period have equalled if not exceeded the Hindoos; and yet the Romans were barbarians till three or four centuries before the chriſtian æra. The fine linen of Egypt ſeems to have been of far more remote antiquity. Nor is Hindoſtan celebrated at this day for any manufacture, except thoſe of muſlins and calicoes, the other exports conſiſting of diamonds, raw ſilks, with a few wrought ſilks, ſpices, drugs, &c. The ſhawls of Caſhmir are alſo deſervedly eſteemed; being there woven from a material chiefly ſupplied by Tibet. Sonnerat[14] has illuſtrated with ſome care the arts and trades of the Hindoos. Painting is in its infancy; and they are ſtrangers to ſhade and perſpective. In the painted muſlins and calicoes the brightneſs of the tints is owing to nature rather than art. Sculpture is as little advanced as painting, the deſign and execution being alike bad; yet the temples are ſometimes majeſtic and ſolemn. In moſt trades very few tools are employed. The ſimple loom is reared in the morning under a tree, and carried home in the evening.

Native Products.

But it is the abundance of native products, which has in all ages rendered Hindoſtan the centre of great trade. Diamonds, and ſome other

[14] Tome i. page 99.

precious ſtones, are products almoſt peculiar; as well as many ſpices, aromatics, and drugs. In modern times the tea and porcelain of China, and other oriental articles, have been vaguely included among thoſe of the Eaſt Indies. But rice, ſugar, and many articles of luxury are products of Hindoſtan. NATIVE PRODUCTS.

The climate and ſeaſons are conſiderably diverſified by difference of latitude, and local ſituation. Yet in general, though the northern Alps of Tibet be covered with perpetual ſnow, there is ſome ſimilarity of climate through the wide regions of Hindoſtan. In Bengal the hot, or dry ſeaſon begins with March, and continues to the end of May, the thermometer ſometimes riſing to 110°: this intenſe heat is ſometimes interrupted by violent thunder ſtorms from the northweſt, the ſeat of the grand Alps of Aſia. The fogs are not only common, but horribly thick and unhealthy. Various meteorological journals, kept in Bengal, are publiſhed in the Aſiatic Reſearches, whence a complete idea may be formed of the ſeaſons. The rainy ſeaſon continues from June to September: the three laſt months of the year are generally pleaſant; but exceſſive fogs often prevail in January and February. Climate and Seaſons.

The periodical rains are alſo felt in Sindetic Hindoſtan, except in Caſhmir, where they ſeem to be excluded by the ſurrounding mountains. In the reſt of Hindoſtan they almoſt deluge the country, deſcending like cataracts from the clouds, and the Ganges and other rivers ſpread to a wide extent, the inundation ceaſing in September. By the latter end of June the Ganges has riſen fifteen feet and a half, out of thirty-two, which is the total of its overflow."[1] In the mountains the rainy ſeaſon begins early in April; but rarely in the plains till the latter end of June. "By the latter end of July all the lower parts of Bengal, contiguous to the Ganges and Burrampooter, are overflowed, and form an inundation of more than a hundred miles in width; nothing appearing but villages and trees, excepting very rarely the top of an elevated ſpot (the artificial mound of ſome deſerted village) appearing like an iſland."

In the ſouthern diviſion the chains of the Gauts, or mountains of Malabar and Coromandel, ſupporting the high table land in the centre,

[1] Rennell. 349.

intercept

Climate and Seasons.

intercept the great maſs of clouds; and the alternate S. W. and N. E. winds, called the Monſoons, occaſion a rainy ſeaſon on one ſide of the mountains only, that is on the windward ſide.* Yet it appears that during the firſt part of the rainy monſoon, in May and June, on the coaſt of Malabar, a conſiderable quantity of rain falls in the upper region or table land of Myſore, &c. Major Rennell obſerves, that at Nagpour, in the very centre of Hindoſtan, the ſeaſons differ but little from their uſual courſe in Bengal, and on the weſtern ſide; that is the S. W. monſoon occaſions a rainy ſeaſon, though not ſo violent. In the parallel of Surat, from the mountains declining in height, and other cauſes, there is no longer that ſingularity which occaſions rain on one ſide of the Deccan while the oppoſite ſeaſon prevails on the other. The monſoon is from the N. E. from October to April; and from May to September in the oppoſite direction. The rainy ſeaſon on the coaſt of Coromandel is with the N. E. monſoon; and on that of Malabar with the S.W.: in general March, April, May, and June are the dry months.

Hence while in Tibet the winter nearly correſponds with that of Switzerland, and the reſt of Europe, in the whole extent of Hindoſtan, except in Caſhmir, there can hardly be ſaid to be a veſtige of winter, except the thick fogs of our November: and exceſſive rains, or exceſſive heats, form the chief varieties of the year.

General Face of the Country.

The aſpect of this wide country is extremely diverſified; but in general there are no mountains of any conſiderable height, the higheſt Gauts in the ſouth not being eſtimated at above three thouſand feet. The frontier mountains of Tibet are of ſmall elevation, compared with thoſe of the interior of that country; and the wonderful extent of Hindoſtan conſiſts chiefly of extenſive plains, fertilized by numerous

* Rennell, 293. Through the whole of this account of Hindoſtan there has been occaſion to regret the want of a geography of that country, regularly digeſted from the numerous detached accounts. Mr. Pennant's work yields infinitely to the geography of his Arctic Zoology; and independantly of its want of plan and ſub-diviſions, is defective even in his own province, that of natural hiſtory, as connected with climate and ſoil.

In his laſt memoir, page 15, Rennell informs us that in ſouthern Hindoſtan the S. W. monſoon prevails, May, June, and July, on the W. coaſt, and the N. E. monſoon on the oppoſite during a part of October, and all November and December: but the rain of the former is the heavieſt, being 72 inches a year. In Coromandel ſummer begins in June; in Malabar in October, when it is winter in the other. Weſdin, p. 4.

rivers and ſtreams, and interſperſed with a few ranges of hills. The periodical rains and intenſe heats produce a luxuriance of vegetation, almoſt unknown to any other country on the globe: and the variety and richneſs of the vegetable creation delight the eye of every ſpectator. General Face of the Country.

The ſoil is ſometimes ſo excellent as to conſiſt of black vegetable mould to the depth of ſix feet. Rice is the chief grain; and on the dry ſandy lands of the coaſt of Coromandel great induſtry is diſplayed in watering it.[16] Maize and the ſugar cane are alſo favourite products. Extreme attention to manure ſeems far from being ſo general as in China or Japan; nor perhaps is it neceſſary. The cultivation of cotton may alſo be conceived to be widely diffuſed; and this plant particularly thrives on the dry coaſt of Coromandel. There muſt of courſe be a conſiderable diverſity in the modes of agriculture, as well as in the products, through ſo wide a country; but in general the implements are of the moſt ſimple deſcription, though the fertility of the land amply compenſate for any defect in practice or induſtry.* Soil.

In deſcribing the large and numerous rivers of Hindoſtan, the Ganges and Indus ſhall firſt be conſidered, with their chief tributary ſtreams; and a ſhort account of the principal rivers in the central part ſhall be followed by thoſe in the ſouthern diviſion. This arrangement naturally ariſes from the four grand diviſions formerly mentioned. Rivers.

The Ganges muſt ſtill be conſidered as the ſacred ſovereign of the Hindoo rivers, an attribute not infringed by the recent diſcovery of the Burrampooter. It receives ſuch a number of important tributary ſtreams, that its magnitude exceeds what might have been expected from the comparative length of its courſe; which may however be eſtimated at about fourteen hundred Britiſh miles, while the Hoan-ho of China has been computed at two thouſand, and the Kian-ku at two thouſand two hundred. The ſource of the Ganges remains a curious object of inveſtigation; nor can much reliance be placed on its delineation in the map of Tibet by the Chineſe Lamas, publiſhed by Du Halde, and followed by all ſucceeding geographers. For, independantly of the doubts which accompany the relation of theſe Lamas, the reader Ganges.

[16] Sonnerat, i. 106.

* The harveſt is divided into two periods, the Khereef and Rubbee; the former being in September, and October; and the latter in March and April. Aſ. Reſ. vi. 45.

Rivers. has only to compare Mr. Turner's map of his route in the ſouth of Tibet, with the ſame country in Du Halde's map, to ſee that the latter is erroneous in almoſt every reſpect, as the courſes of the rivers, names of places, &c. &c. Such being the caſe, there is little room to expect more accuracy in the other parts. Anquetil du Perron conſiders the ſource of the Ganges as ſtill unexplored; and ſays that the Chineſe miſſionaries only diſcovered that of the Gogra, or Gagra, a large river running parallel with the Ganges on the eaſt, and joining that noble ſtream above Chupra. The labours of the jeſuit Tieffenthaler have little illuſtrated this ſubject, though they ſeem to evince that the Gagra ſprings from a lake called Lanken, to the weſt of the lake of Manſaror, whence one ſource of the Ganges is ſuppoſed to flow.[17] Tieffenthaler has laid down the latitude of the noted Gangontra, or Cow's mouth in lat. 33°, being a celebrated cataract where the Ganges is ſaid to paſs through a vaſt cavern in a mountain falling into a large baſon which it has worn in the rock. At Hurdwar, about two hundred and eighty miles to the ſouth of the Cow's mouth, (if this laſt be not a dream of the fabling Hindoos,) the Ganges enters the wide plains of Hindoſtan; and purſues a ſouth eaſt direction by the ancient city of Canoge, once the capital of a kingdom, by Allahabad, Benares, Patna, &c. till dividing into many grand and capacious mouths it form an extenſive Delta at its egreſs into the gulf of Bengal. The extreme mouths of the Ganges are interſected with iſles, called the Sunderbunds, overgrown with tall bamboos and other luxuriant vegetation, the profond haunts of the royal tiger and other beaſts of prey. On the weſternmoſt outlet of the Ganges, called the Hoogley, or Ugli, ſtands Calcutta, the capital of Britiſh Hindoſtan. This, and the moſt eaſtern which receives the Burrampooter, are the wideſt and moſt important branches.

Burrampoot. The nobleſt tributary ſtream of the Ganges is the Burrampooter, or as ſtyled by the people of Aſam the Burrampoot, being the Sanpoo of the Tibetans. The courſe of this river, and its junction with the Ganges, were firſt aſcertained by Major Rennell, of the Engineers, and

[17] See Tome ii. of Bernoulli's Collection, page 351, &c. Rennell, 313: the Jeſuit's mountains of Kelaſeh, i. 150, ſeem the Kentais of the Lamas.

Surveyor

Surveyor General in Bengal, in 1765. This noble river runs for four hundred miles through the Britiſh territory; and for the laſt ſixty miles before its junction with the Ganges is from four to five miles wide. On their union below Luckipour, they form a body of running freſh water, reſembling a gulph of the ſea, interſperſed with iſlands, ſome of which rival in ſize and fertility our Iſle of Wight. In the mouths of the Ganges, and the Megna, or Burrampoot, the Bore or ſudden influx of the tide will riſe inſtantaneouſly to the height of from five to twelve feet.[18] Between Bengal and Tibet the Burrampoot paſſes through the country of Aſam, a region hitherto little known, and which may be here briefly deſcribed. It is divided into two parts by the river; the northern being called Uttarcul, and the ſouthern Dacſhincul. The mountains of Duleh, and Landa divide Aſam from Tibet.[19] Aſam is interſected by ſeveral ſtreams which run into the Burrampoot; among which is the Donec in the ſouth, the environs of which preſent fields, groves, and gardens. Among the products are many kinds of valuable fruits, with pepper, cocoa nuts, ſugar, and ginger. The ſilk is ſaid to equal that of China; nor are muſk deer unknown. The northern province, Uttarcul, ſurpaſſes the ſouthern in tillage and population; gold and ſilver are ſaid to be found in the ſand of the rivers, and to furniſh employment to many of the natives. The Hindoo tenets are not known by the generality, though there be ſome Bramins, and the vulgar dialect ſomewhat reſemble that of Bengal. The Raja, or king reſides at Ghargon, the capital, which, by this account, ſtands on the ſouth of the great river: it is fenced with bamboos, and has four gates conſtructed of ſtone and earth. The palace, public ſaloon, &c. ſeem rudely to reſemble thoſe of the Birmans. The natives are a ſtout and brave race; and repeatedly foiled the invaſions of the Moguls. Rivers. Aſam.

The courſe of the Burrampoot is ſuppoſed to be nearly equal in length to that of the Ganges. The ſources of theſe great rivers are ſtated to be very near, yet they ſeparate to the diſtance of more than a thouſand miles, and afterwards join in their termination.

The moſt important tributary ſtreams which ſwell the Ganges are the Gagra, alſo called Sarjoo, (a great part of whoſe courſe, like thoſe of Gagra, &c.

[18] Rennell, 358. [19] Aſ. Reſ. ii. 171.

Rivers. Coſa and Teeſta, belong to Tibet;) the Jumna or Yumena, which receives many conſiderable rivers from the ſouth, particularly the Chumbul and the Betwa; and laſtly the Soan.

The Gagra, after purſuing a long courſe from the mountains of Tibet, pervades the province of Oude. It is ſingular that this river is wholly unknown by any name whatever in the map of Tibet by the Lamas; another cogent proof that it deſerves very little credit. The comparative courſe of the Gagra is about ſeven hundred miles.

Jumna. The Jumna riſes from the mountains of Sirinagur, purſuing nearly a parallel courſe to the Ganges on the weſt, as the Gagra does on the eaſt; but its comparative courſe has not exceeded five hundred miles when it flows into the Ganges at Allahabad. By receiving numerous and extenſive ſtreams from the ſouth, the Jumna contributes greatly to increaſe the breadth of Gangetic Hindoſtan; and the Chumbul, which joins the Jumna, is itſelf ſwelled with many tributary ſtreams.

Soan. The Soan is ſaid to ſpring from the ſame lake, or other ſource, with the Nerbudda, (which flows in an oppoſite direction to the gulf of Cambay,) and joins the Ganges not far below its union with the Gagra.* Several ſtreams of ſmaller account fall into the Hoogley, or weſtern branch of the Ganges.

Indus. The Indus, and its confluent ſtreams, form the next object. This celebrated river is by the natives called Sindé, or Sindeh, and in the original Sanſcret Seendho. It is alſo called Nilab, or the Blue River. The ſource, like that of the Ganges, remains unknown; for the ideas expreſſed even by Major Rennell on the ſubject are vague and unſatis-

* See in the Aſiatic Regiſter, vol. ii. for 1800, a curious account of the ſources of the Soan and Nerbudda. Theſe rivers riſe in the table land of Omercuntuc, at a noted place of pilgrimage. The Nerbudda ſprings from a ſmall well; and after a ſhort courſe falls abruptly from a moſt ſtupendous height; and being joined by many ſtreams, ſoon becomes a conſiderable river. The Soan riſes from the eaſt ſide of Omercuntuc, and proceeds N. to Burdy, whence it proceeds E. to the Ganges. The Hindoo temple here is magnificent; and is in the territory, or under the protection of the Goands. Rochette's map gives a more juſt idea of the ſources of theſe rivers than Rennell's, in which they are confounded. The journey above quoted, by Mr. Blunt an engineer, from Chunargur by Ruttunpour to Rajamundry in the Sircar of Ellore (which muſt not be confounded with the celebrated Ellora), is very intereſting, as it diſcloſes ſome parts of Hindoſtan little viſited. It is to be regretted that the ingenious author has not accompanied it with a map.

factory.

factory. His Plain of Pamer is derived from a miſinterpreted paſſage of Marco Polo ; and the whole of this region is as yet only ingenious conjecture. The mountains of Mus Tag, from which Rennell derives the Indus, as well as the Plain of Pamer in its new acceptation, are borrowed from the Map of Strahlenberg, which is indeed excellent for the time, 1737, and laid the firſt foundation of an exact knowledge of central Aſia. But the proper mountains of Mus Tag, which are alſo laid down by Strahlenberg, run from W. to E., being the chain to the ſouth of Little Bucharia ; and from the map of Iſlenieff, 1777, it appears that the chain of mountains which gives ſource to the Amu or Gihon on one ſide, and on the other to the rivers of Little Bucharia, is that of the Belur Tag, or Cloudy Mountains ; from the eaſtern ſide of which chain the Indus ſeems to ariſe. Its comparative courſe may be about a thouſand Britiſh miles, when it forms a delta in the province of Sindi, entering by many mouths into the Indian ſea. Rivers.

The tributary rivers of the Sindé chiefly join it in the northern half of its courſe, where they form the Panjab, or country of Five Rivers. From the weſt run into the Indus the Kameh, with its tributary ſtreams, and the Comul : from the eaſt the Behut or Hydaſpes ; the Chunab or Aceſinas ; the Rauvee or Hydraotes ; and the Setlege or Heſudrus, with a tributary ſtream on the weſt, the Hyphaſis : the Panjab country being on the eaſt of the Sindé. The whole of this part of Hindoſtan is little known to the moderns ; and it is uncertain whether the Caggar, a conſiderable and diſtant river to the Eaſt, join the Sindé, or fall into the gulf of Cutch.* Panjab.

Having thus briefly deſcribed the moſt important rivers in the two firſt grand diviſions of Hindoſtan, thoſe of the Central part muſt next be conſidered, being chiefly the Pudda, Nerbudda, and Taptee, on the weſt ; and on the eaſt the Subanrecka, or Subunreka, which joins the ſea about thirty miles to the weſt of that mouth of the Ganges called the Hoogley, or more properly, from a city on its ſhore, the Ugli. The Subunreka being here conſidered as the N. E. boundary of Central Hindoſtan, is followed by the Bramnee, the Mahanada ; and after paſſing

* Major Rennell's excellent map may here be compared with that of de la Rochette, publiſhed by Faden 1788, which is well executed and compiled with great care.

the

Rivers. the little ſtreams of the Sircars by the Godaveri, the laſt and moſt important ſtream of Central Hindoſtan.

Godaveri. The Godaveri riſes at Trimbuck Naſſor, in the weſtern Gauts, more properly called the Sukhien mountains, from ſeveral ſources, about ſeventy miles to the N. E. of Bombay.[20] This great river was little known in Europe till recent times; and is alſo called the Ganga, a Hindoo term for a river in general, though applied by pre-eminence to the Ganges.[21] About ninety miles above its egreſs into the ſea, the Bain Gonga. Godaveri receives a large river, the Bain Gonga, which pervades immenſe teak foreſts in a ſingular wild country, inhabited by ſavages in the centre of Hindoſtan, and as yet little known or explored.* The Bain Gonga was firſt diſcovered to Europeans by the late Colonel Camac, its courſe being about four hundred miles, while that of the Godaveri may be ſeven hundred. This laſt great river, like another Nile or Ganges, fertilizes the country; and from the benefits which it confers is eſteemed ſacred. Beſides the Bain or Baun Gonga, it receives many tributary ſtreams, as the Burda and others from the north; and from the ſouth a circuitous large river, the Manzora, which paſſes by Beder.

Nerbudda. The next in conſequence, in the central diviſion of Hindoſtan, is the Nerbudda, which may be called a ſolitary ſtream, as it receives ſo few contributions. Its courſe is almoſt due weſt, and about equal to that of the Godaveri. The Taptee, which paſſes by Surat, is alſo a conſiderable river, about four hundred miles in length. To the ſouth of this river the ſuperior elevation of the Sukhien mountains, or weſtern Gauts, diffuſes all the rivers towards the eaſt.

In the arrangement here followed the Deccan, or moſt ſouthern part of Hindoſtan, is conſidered as bounded and enriched by the Kiſtna and its tributary ſtreams. The Kiſtna, a ſacred river, riſes at Baliſur in the chain of Sukhien, not far to the ſouth of Poona, and forms a delta near Maſulipatam, after a comparative courſe of about five hundred Britiſh miles. This river rivals any Indian ſtream in the fertility diffuſed by

Kiſtna.

[20] Aſ. Reſ. v. 1. 5. [21] Rennell, 244.

* D'Anville's map, 1751, ſuppoſes that the Gonga and Godaveri fall into the Bay of Bengal cloſe to the weſtern branch of the Ganges! The ideas of Ptolemy are more juſt.

its inundations; and the richeſt diamond mines in the world are in the neighbouring hills to the north. The chief tributary ſtreams in that quarter are the Beema, paſſing near the diamond mines of Viſiapour; and the Muzi or Mouſſi by thoſe of Golconda. But the moſt conſiderable river joins the Kiſtna from the ſouth, being the Toombuddra of Rennell's laſt map, the Tunge-badra of D'Anville; on the banks of which have been recently diſcloſed many populous provinces, and flouriſhing towns. Rivers.

To the ſouth of the Kiſtna appear the Pennar, the Paliar, and above all the Caveri, another large and ſacred ſtream, which paſſes by Seringapatam the capital of Myſore, and forms a wider delta than any other ſouthern river, when it enters the ſea after a courſe of about three hundred miles. The Caveri in general pervades a country in which public monuments, unequivocal marks of civilization and opulence, are more common than in the northern parts of Hindoſtan.[22] As the courſe of the Caveri is comparatively ſhort, its tributary ſtreams are unimportant. Caveri.

Such are the principal rivers in this extenſive portion of Aſia. The lakes ſeem to be few. Rennell mentions that of Colair, during the inundations about forty or fifty miles in extent, and a conſiderable piece of water in all ſeaſons, lying about midway between the Godaveri and Kiſtna, in the new ſoil gradually formed by the inundations of theſe rivers; about twelve Britiſh miles to the north of Maſulipatam. That of Chilka bounds the Britiſh Sircars on the north, reſembling the German Haffs deſcribed in the firſt volume of this work, being a kind of ſalt creek communicating with the ſea. The lake of Pulicat is of a ſimilar kind. One or two lakes may alſo be traced in the vicinity of the Ganges and the Indus. The country of Caſhmir is ſuppoſed to have been originally a large lake, as reported in the native traditions, and a conſiderable expanſe of water ſtill remains in the northern part of this delightful country, called the lake of Ouller or Tal, being about fifty-three Britiſh miles in circuit. Lakes.

The mountains chiefly celebrated by the Hindoos may be ſaid to be only viſible from their country, being the northern chain of the Tibe- Mountains.

[22] Rennell, 275.

tian

Mountains. tian Alps, covered with perpetual ſnow. Hence they are called Himmala, from a word denoting ſnow; and are celebrated in the conflicts of the gods, and other mythologic fables. This name of Himmala may perhaps be the ſource of the Imaus of the ancients. Ptolemy not only deſcribes an Imaus as running north and ſouth, or the Belur Tag of the Ruſſians and Tatars, with its ridges to the weſt, now called Argun, Ak Tau, &c., but another Imaus paſſing E. and W. to the N. of Hindoſtan. Juſtly extending the Caucaſian chain to the ſouth of the Caſpian, he has given it ſeveral local appellations, as Coronus, Sariphus, &c. His Paropamiſus, on the north and weſt of the province ſo called, is to the ſouth of Balk or Bactriana, terminating in the weſt in the ſandy deſert called that of Margiana. The higheſt ſummits of his Imaus he mentions as thoſe that give ſource to the Indus, and which ought indeed to form one chain with his Imaus from the north, which he has here transferred from longitude 127° to 142°, an error of fifteen degrees, even ſuppoſing his general longitude juſt. His Emodus and Ottorocoras, ridges to the ſouth of his Scythia beyond the Imaus, are the Mus Tag of Ruſſian geography to the ſouth of Little Bucharia, and muſt not be confounded with the Kantel, the northern boundary of Caſhmir and Tibet. But the laſt mountainous region, being ſtill leſs explored in ancient than in modern times, has totally eſcaped the knowledge and geography of Ptolemy; who having thus loſt a ſpace of about ten degrees in breadth, or 700 miles, it becomes doubtful whether his Imaus proceeded on the north of Tibet or of Hindoſtan. On the eaſt ſide of the Ganges he delineates the ridges which paſs from north to ſouth, in the Birman empire, the boundary of ancient diſcovery: but as in Europe he was a ſtranger to the central parts of Germany, and in Hindoſtan to thoſe of the Deccan, ſo by his obliteration of Tibet, great confuſion ariſes in his geography of northern Hindoſtan; nor has D'Anville, who places the Brahmani in Tibet, been ſufficiently aware of the difficulty. This diſcuſſion of a curious and neglected part of Hindoo geography muſt be diſmiſſed with the remark, that the Emodus of Ptolemy, being by him aſcribed to Serica, muſt be conſidered as the ſouthern ridge of Little Bucharia; while his Imaus,

Ancient Names.

which

which he ſuppoſes a continuation of the chain abovementioned, muſt be removed no leſs than ſeven hundred miles to the ſouth, where it forms the ſouthern ridge of the Tibetian Alps. On this plan his map of eaſtern Aſia might be cut aſunder at his 35° of N. latitude, as far W. as the ſources of the Indus; the upper part being Little Bucharia, whoſe ſouthern frontier may extend to 35°, while the under part muſt be transferred to the ſouth, where our 26° correſpond with Ptolemy's 35°. Mountains.

As the northern Imaus of Ptolemy is clearly the Belur Tag, ſo his ſouthern Imaus may be ſafely regarded as the Himmala of the Hindoos; which may be admitted to have been known to the ancients, who were no ſtrangers to the rich Gangetic regions of Hindoſtan. Nor was it abſurd to conſider the Himmala as a S. E. prolongation of the northern Imaus. The ridge to the caſt of Bengal is the Bepyrus or Sepyrus of Ptolemy: his Meandrus being the ridge which divides Aracan from Ava: his Damaſus that near the river of Martaban; and his Semanthinus, ſeemingly connected with Thinæ, is the chain to the eaſt of Tanaſerim, this laſt ridge being the utmoſt limit of ancient knowledge in the S. E., as Little Bucharia was in the N. E.

To return to a more ſpecial conſideration of the preſent topic, it muſt be obſerved that there is no ſmall confuſion, even in the moſt recent delineations, of the Indian ranges of mountains, or rather hills, and their exact denominations. The eaſtern ridge, called by Ptolemy Sepyrus, might in modern times be called Tipera. Thoſe on the ſouth of Aſam might be ſtyled the Garro mountains, being inhabited by a people ſo called. The ridges to the ſouth of Nipal and Bootan are far inferior in height to the Himmala, or ſnowy ridge; nor can we much depend on the Tibetian names given by Du Halde. An equal defect attends the mountains from Sirinagur to Caſhmir, though there be no objection to Rennell's name of Himmala. The ridge of Kuttore is properly on the north of that province, running eaſt and weſt: and is followed by the Hindoo Koh of oriental geographers. Modern Names.

The mountains to the weſt of the Indus, or on the Perſian frontier, ſeem to be the Becius and Parvetius of Ptolemy; but the modern names

Mountains. are little known; nor that of the ridge running parallel with the Indus on the eaſt, called by Ptolemy Apocopus. The ſame author mentions mount Vindius, whence he derives the ſource of the Soan; now, it is believed, called Vindiah, and often mentioned in the Hindoo tales, though they ſeem to deſcribe theſe hills as far to the weſt. Ptolemy's mountain of Sardonyx is not far to the eaſt of Baroach, if that place be the Barigaza of antiquity. His Bettigus, near the royal ſeat of Arcat, ſeems a part of the eaſtern Gauts, as were his Adiſathrus, Orudius, and Uxentus, which cloſe the liſt of mountains known to Ptolemy in this extenſive region.

In Major Rennell's excellent map of Hindoſtan the ridges are rather inſerted in the minute and antiquated manner of D'Anville, than treated with a bold and ſcientific diſcrimination. The following liſt contains moſt of the names there to be found:

The Chaliſcuteli hills, between the weſtern deſert and the Setlege.

The Alideck mountains, above Gujurat.

The mountains of Gomaun, or Kemaoon, called alſo thoſe of Sewalic. This extenſive ridge ſeems to form the exterior barrier of the Tibetian Alps in Sirinagur, &c.

The mountains of Himmaleh, N. of Taſſiſudon. The other Tibetian mountains ſeem to be from Du Halde.

In Bengal are ſeveral ridges of hills without names, which is the caſe even with the chain on the N. W. of the Sircars.

The Lucknow, hills at the ſource of the Mahanada.

Thoſe of Gondwanah, running parallel with the Nerbudda for a ſpace, and then turning ſouth to Narnalla.

The ridges near the Chumbul are alſo without name.

The Grenier mountains in Guzerat.

The Shatpoorta hills, between the Nerbudda and the Taptee.

On the other ſide of the Nerbudda there are alſo remarkable parallel ridges, giving ſource to many rivers, but nameleſs.

Even the Gauts are laid down with little care; and the important diamond mountains of Golconda and Viſiapour are not mentioned.

A ridge

A ridge called the Bundch mountains runs parallel to the Godaveri on the ſouth, but at a conſiderable diſtance from that river.* MOUNTAINS.

Hence it will be perceived that the Hindoo orology is ſingularly imperfect: but what is to be expected from a people who confound terms ſo far as to call a mountain a Gaut or a Paſs? The Gauts, peculiarly ſo called, are ranges which run along the weſtern and eaſtern coaſts of the Deccan. The former is by the natives called the mountains of Sukhien, a name which ſhould ſupplant the abſurd appellation of the Gauts.[23] In the language of the country *Mali* or *Muli* implies a mountain, and *Purbet* a hill. Whether the eaſtern Gauts be alſo called Sukhien we are not informed; but it is probable that another native name may be diſcovered for this diſtinct range of mountains. From an intereſting journey to Sirinagur, publiſhed in the ſixth volume of the Aſiatic Reſearches, it appears that the ſame name of Ghat or Ghaut is extended to the high ranges of mountains in the north: and D'Anville, wholly at a loſs for diſtinct appellations of the numerous ranges in Hindoſtan, has in his general map of Aſia introduced the mountains of Balagat near Viſiapour, and has repeated them in his large map of Hindoſtan; though this name, Balagat, ſimply nothing but the high Gauts or ſuperior paſſes.

The Gauts peculiarly ſo called riſe abruptly on each ſide, but particularly the weſt, forming as it were enormous walls, ſupporting a high terrace or table land in the middle. This elevated track, paſſing through a great part of the Maratta territories to the north of Myſore, is termed in general the Balla-Gaut, through its whole extent, while low paſſes are called Payen-Gaut.[24] Oppoſite to Paniany, on the weſtern coaſt, there is a break or interruption of the mountains, about ſixteen miles in breadth, chiefly occupied by a foreſt; excluſive of this gap the mountains of Sukhien extend from Cape Comorin to Surat, at the diſ-

* The ſmall maps in the Memoir preſent the ſnowy mountains of Buſteh in Cabul, thoſe of Suhmandrog, and Wulli in Candahar, the Punchals in the ſouth of Caſhmir. The As. Reſ. i. 277, quote Rennell for the chain of Caramſha, fourteen miles north from Guya; and page 283, the Vindya chain is ſaid to begin at Chunar in Bahar. Theſe references are from his Atlas of Bengal.

[23] As. Reſ. v. 1. 5.

[24] Rennell, cxxvii.

Mountains. tance of from forty to ſeventy miles from the ſhore.[25] Their effect on the ſeaſons has been already mentioned; and it ceaſes at Surat, where the S. W. wind carries uninterrupted moiſture over Hindoſtan. The high terrace in the middle of the Deccan receives little rain; and the coaſt of Coromandel, which receives its rain from the N. E. monſoon, is alſo of a dry ſoil as already deſcribed.

Deſert. The ſandy deſert on the eaſt of the Indus muſt not be omitted, extending in length between four and five hundred Britiſh miles, and in breadth from ſixty to a hundred and fifty. Of this great deſert the accounts are imperfect; but it is ſtyled that of Agimere, and ſeems to have been known to Herodotus. Such wide expanſes of barren ſand form features peculiar to Aſia and Africa.

Foreſts. Of this extenſive portion of Aſia a great part remaining in primitive wildneſs, there are large foreſts in various quarters, particularly near the mouth of the Ganges, and in the wide unexplored regions on the weſt of the Sircars. Theſe foreſts ſurpaſs in exuberance of vegetation any idea which Europeans can imagine; creeping plants of prodigious ſize and length, extended from tree to tree, forming an impenetrable gloom, and a barrier, as it were, ſacred to the firſt myſteries of nature.

Botany. The general obſervations which were made on India beyond the Ganges, apply with ſtill greater propriety to the botany of Hindoſtan. A more fertile ſoil, and a climate better adapted to the moſt profuſe luxuriance of vegetation than the well watered tracts in this vaſt peninſula, cannot poſſibly be found in any part of the known world. The liberality with which nature has ſcattered over this favoured country the choiceſt of thoſe plants that contribute to the ſuſtenance, the convenience, and elegance of human life, is boundleſs, and almoſt without competition: double harveſts, two crops of fruit from many of the trees, and from moſt of the reſt a copious and regular ſupply during the greater part of the year, are the great baſes that ſupport its ſwarming population, while its timber of every quality, its plants of medicinal virtue,

[25] Rennell, 276, and his Map of the Deccan 1800, in which the ſouthern mountains are well expreſſed. Among the animals are numerous elephants; and if we believe Weſdin, 214, wild oxen ten feet high, with fine ath grey hair. The Arni of the north are black cattle, ſaid to be fourteen feet high! Ib. note.

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its numerous and exquiſite dying drugs, and its cottons and other vegetable articles of cloathing, offer to its inhabitants the materials of enjoyment and civilization. Botany.

The moſt diſtinguiſhing feature in tropical landſcapes is the multitude of lofty trees of the palm kind; all theſe riſe with a ſimple trunk to a conſiderable height, terminated by a tuft of large leaves, and wholly deſtitute of branches except while they are in fruit: of theſe many ſpecies are natives of India. The cocoa-nut tree, perhaps the moſt widely diffuſed of any, is found in abundance on the coaſts of Malabar and Coromandel: its fruit ſupplies an agreeable nutriment, and the fibrous covering of the nut is manufactured into the moſt elaſtic cables that are known. The areca palm is another of this family, of rare occurrence in a truly wild ſtate, but cultivated over all India for its nuts, which, mixed with the leaves of the betel pepper and a little quick-lime, are in general requeſt for chewing as tobacco is uſed in Europe. The ſmaller fan-palm (boraſſus flabelliformis) is diſtinguiſhed for its broad fan-ſhaped leaves, which are uſed for writing on and for thatching: its wood is in high eſteem for rafters; and of its juice the beſt palm toddy, the common diſtilled ſpirit of the country, is made. This, although a large tree, is far inferior to the great gigantic fan-palm (corypha umbraculifera) which abounds on the lower mountains of the Carnatic; each leaf of this vaſt tree is capable of covering ten or a dozen men, and two or three of them are ſufficient to roof a cottage. The moſt beautiful of all, the ſago palm, is alſo found here, though not ſo plentifully as in ſome of the Indian iſlands. Beſides theſe may be mentioned the elate ſylveſtris, whoſe ſweet farinaceous fruit is the favourite repaſt of the elephant; the caryota urens, a handſome lofty tree; and the plantain, diſtinguiſhed by its tuft of broad ſimple light green leaves, and its wholeſome farinaceous fruit.

Of the other fruit-bearing trees the number is ſo great, and they are for the moſt part ſo little known, even by name, to Europeans, that only a few of the principal need be here mentioned: theſe are the papaw fig; two ſpecies of the genus known to botaniſts by the name eugenia, and remarkable for the ſweetneſs and roſe flavour of their fruit;

Botany. fruit; and the ſpondias dulcis, whoſe ſweetneſs, pleaſantly tempered with acid, renders it peculiarly agreeable in this hot climate. The pillaw is a tree of equal ſingularity and uſe: from its trunk and larger branches are produced large fibrous bags, ſometimes of the weight of twenty-five pounds, which are filled with nuts like the cheſtnut, and reſembling the almond in flavour. The dillenia indica is remarkable for its beauty, and valuable for its large pomaceous fruit of a pure acid, and equal to the white lily in fragrance. The averrhoa carambola produces three crops of fruit in the year, and another of the ſame genus, the a. bilimbi, is in a manner covered with large juicy berries of the ſize of a hen's egg, and reſembling the grape. The mango however is reckoned the moſt exquiſite of the Indian fruits, and is found in conſiderable abundance, both wild and cultivated, through the whole peninſula: nor ought the cariſſa caranda to be omitted, or the elephant apple, (feronia elephantum,) almoſt equally a favourite with the animal whoſe name it bears, and with the native Hindoos.

Of the trees whoſe produce is uſed in medicine or the arts, the moſt worthy of notice are the caſſia fiſtula; the tamarind; the gambogia, from whoſe bark exudes the gum of the ſame name; the ſtrychnos nuxvomica; the laurus caſſia, whoſe bark is a common ſubſtitute for cinnamon; cæſalpina ſappan, a red wood uſed in dying; ſirium myrtifolium (ſandal wood); ſtrychnos potatorum, the fruit of which, called the *clearing nut*, is in general uſe for clearing muddy water; ſemecarpus anacardium, or *marking nut*, uſed for giving a durable black ſtain to cotton; and goſſypium arboreum, the tree cotton. The chief timber trees are the teak, uſed ſpecially for ſhip-building; a large tree called by botaniſts gyrocarpus, whoſe ſtrong light wood is in great requeſt for rafts, or catamarans; the ebony; the ferreola, the hardeſt of all the Indian woods; the nauclea cordifolia, of a cloſe compact grain like boxwood; and the dalbergia, a dark grey wood with light coloured veins, very heavy, and capable of a moſt exquiſite poliſh; it is much uſed for furniture.

A few other trees require notice from their ſize or beauty, ſuch as the banyan tree and Indian fig; the hibiſcus ſiculneus is remarkable by its magnitude, and the profuſion of its elegant bloſſoms, and is of peculiar

liar value in a tropical climate, as hardly any inſects are found under its ſhade. The bombax ceiba riſes with a thorny trunk eighteen feet in circumference to the height of fifty feet without a branch; it then throws out numerous boughs, which are adorned in the rainy ſeaſon with purple bloſſoms as large as the open hand, and theſe are ſucceeded by capſules filled with cotton. The ſhrubs and herbaceous plants are innumerable, and multitudes would be well worth recording for their beauty or uſe, if the nature of this work allowed an opportunity; we cannot omit however the indigo and the oldenlandia, (Indian madder,) whence the beautiful colours of the Indian chintzes are procured; nor the datura metel, a ſhrub adorned all the year with large trumpet-ſhaped bloſſoms of the pureſt white. The nyctanthes hirſuta, and the jaſminum grandiflorum, boaſt the moſt fragrant bloſſoms of the whole eaſt, the former perfuming the night, and the latter ſcenting the day. The glorioſa ſuperba, cecropegia candelabrum, and Indian vine, form by their union bowers worthy of Paradiſe; and the butea ſuperba, a ſmall tree, by the ſtriking contraſt of its green leaves, its black flowerſtalks, and its large ſcarlet papilionaceous bloſſoms, attracts with its oſtentatious charms the notice and admiration of the moſt incurious. Botany.

For an ample account of the zoology of Hindoſtan the curious reader may conſult Mr. Pennant's View of this country, this being the peculiar province of that great naturaliſt. The numerous cavalry, which form the armies of the Hindoo princes, imply great numbers of horſes; and the breeds moſt celebrated are thoſe of Lahore and Turkiſtan, but the grandees are ſupplied from Perſia and Arabia. The inferior breeds, though ugly, are active; and in ſome regions there are ponies not exceeding thirty inches in height.[26] The horſes of Tibet, generally pyed, are often uſed in Gangetic Hindoſtan. The animal called the wild mule, and the wild aſs, ſometimes paſs in herds to the northern mountains, from the centre of Aſia, and the deſert of Cobi. Zoology.

The cattle of Hindoſtan are numerous, and often of a large ſize, with a hunch on the ſhoulders. The ſheep are covered with hair inſtead of wool, except in the moſt northern parts.

[26] Pennant, vol. ii. 239.

Antelopes

Zoology. Antelopes abound of various beautiful kinds, particularly that called the Nilgau, which is of a conſiderable ſize. Bernier, the moſt intelligent of travellers in India, gives an account of the chace of the antelopes by means of the hunting leopard, trained as in Perſia to this ſport.*

The Arabian camel, or that with a ſingle hunch, is not unfrequent about Patna. The elephant has been frequently deſcribed; the uſual height of this intelligent animal is about ten feet, and one of fifteen is eſteemed a gigantic prodigy. Apes and monkies abound in various regions of Hindoſtan; and the orang outang is ſaid to be found in the vaſt foreſts on the W. of the Sircars. The dogs are generally of the cur kind, with ſharp erect ears, and pointed noſes: the ſmalleſt ſize is that kept by the Pariars, or degraded poor, rendered doubly miſerable by the fanatic prejudices of the abominable ſyſtem of the Bramins. The other animals are wild boars, bears, wolves, foxes, jackalls, hyenas, leopards, panthers, lynxes; in the north muſk weaſels, and many other quadrupeds of inferior ſize.

The lion ſeems to have been always unknown in Hindoſtan, where the ancient ſculptors have attempted in vain to repreſent an animal which they never ſaw; but Mr. Pennant aſſures us that they are found near the celebrated fort of Gwalior, about Marwah, and near Caſhmir. The royal tiger of Bengal is however a far more terrible animal than the ſtouteſt lion; and was known in claſſical times, as Seneca the poet calls it *Gangetica tigris*, or the Gangetic tiger. Such is their ſize and ſtrength that they are ſaid to carry off bullocks, the height of ſome being ſaid to be five or ſix feet, and the feline length in proportion. Parties of pleaſure, on the iſles at the mouth of the Ganges, have often been ſhockingly interrupted by the ſudden appearance of the tiger, prepared for his fatal ſpring, which is ſaid to extend a hundred feet, not improbable when compared with that of the cat. Such is the nature of the animal, that if diſappointed in this firſt and ſole leap, he couches his tail and retreats. The rhinoceros with one horn, an animal of the ſwamps, alſo abounds in the Gangetic iſles.

* Thoſe of Tippoo are in the Tower of London; their legs are much higher than thoſe of any other feline animal.

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To enumerate the various birds, fiſhes, and inſects of Hindoſtan, would be a vain and idle attempt in a work of this nature. While the turkey is certainly a native of America, wild peacocks abound in Tibet and Ceylon; our common fowl are alſo found wild in the jungles, whence they are called jungle fowl. Hence it ſeems reaſonable to conclude that as theſe animals have been diffuſed over the civilized world from time immemorial, they muſt have paſſed from Hindoſtan to Perſia, whence they were diffuſed to the weſtern countries. Zoology.

The mineralogy of Hindoſtan may be opened by its moſt diſtinguiſhed and peculiar product, celebrated in all ages of the world, that of diamonds, which are indeed alſo found in Brazil, but of far inferior quality. It is now well known that Sir Iſaac Newton predicted, in his Optics, from its rich and peculiar effuſion of light, that the diamond would be found to be an inflammable ſubſtance. This prediction has been recently fulfilled by numerous experiments; and it is now univerſally admitted by chymiſts that the diamond is only a very pure ſpecies of coal. This ſubſtance is however the moſt hard, tranſparent, and brilliant of all minerals; and is commonly colourleſs, but is found occaſionally of a citron yellow, grey, brown, or black, but very rarely green or blue. The more common form is round, or flatted as it were by attrition; but its chryſtallization is the octahedron, or double quadrangular pyramid, and the dodecahedron, with their varieties; and ſometimes it occurs in cubes. When examined with a microſcope of great power, the texture ſometimes conſiſts of irregular fibres, but is generally laminated, or compoſed of minute layers, like the other genuine gems. It is found in beds of torrents, or in yellow ferruginous earth, under rocks of quartz or ſand ſtone. That of the Brazils is found in a kind of pudding ſtone impregnated with iron ochre. Mineralogy. Diamond.

The chief and moſt celebrated diamond mines are thoſe near Viſiapour and Golconda, both near ſtreams that flow into the Kiſtna in the ſouthern diviſion of Hindoſtan; Golconda being in the territory of the Nizam, while Viſiapour belongs to the Marattas.*

* Colore, another diamond mine, is on the ſouthern bank of the Kiſtna, not far from Condavir. Rennell, 290.

Mineralogy.

Raolconda, a famous diamond mine in the territory of Viſiapour, about forty Britiſh miles N. W. from the junction of the Beema and Kiſtna, ſeems to be the moſt noted of thoſe in that quarter.[27] A diſtrict on the river Mahanada, to the S. of Sumboulpour, is alſo noted for this rich product; as is Gandicotta, on the ſouthern bank of the river Pennar.[28]

The mine near the Mahanada is not the ſole example of the diamond being found to the north of the Deccan; for this mineral unexpectedly occurs ſo far north as Penna, in the territory of Bundelcund, about ſixty B. miles to the ſouth of the river Jumna, which flows into the Ganges.[29] Bundelcund is a mountainous track, about a hundred miles ſquare, ſubject to its Raja.

Next in value to the diamond are the ſapphire and the ruby, which are chiefly found in the Birman territories; but the ruby alſo occurs in Ceylon, which likewiſe produces an inferior kind of ſapphire, the topaz, many curious tourmalins, and other precious ſtones, minutely deſcribed by Thunberg, among which one of the moſt peculiar is the cat's eye, which, like the Italian giraſol, has a peculiar reflection, partaking of the nature of felſpar.[30]

Among the metals gold is found in the rivers which flow from Tibet into the Ganges and Indus; but no gold mines ſeem ever to have been known in Hindoſtan, which has rather been celebrated for attracting this metal in commerce from other countries. On the other hand Tibet, a mountainous country, abounds in this precious metal. Silver ſeems rare in general throughout the oriental regions; and there is no indication of this mineral through all India. Thunberg mentions iron ore and plumbago among the minerals of Ceylon; but ſays nothing of copper, which ſeems alſo little known in Hindoſtan. It is indeed to be regretted that more curioſity has not been excited by the mineralogy of our poſſeſſions in Bengal, and the other regions of this intereſting country; but the attention of the Engliſh to this grand branch

[27] Rennell, 253.

[28] Ib. 240, where it is not unreaſonably inferred that Ptolemy's Adamas is this river.

[29] Ib. 233. [30] Thunberg, iv. 220. See the account of Ceylon, ch. 5. of this article.

of ſcience is very recent, and even the avarice of adventurers cannot be tempted to explore what is not known to exiſt. MINERALOGY.

The natives ſometimes ſeek for the cure of diſeaſes by bathing in the ſacred ſtreams; and their devotion to water in general ſeems to prevent their exploring any medicinal ſources. Yet there are a few exceptions, and ſeveral warm ſprings are reputed ſacred. Mineral Waters.

Among the ſingular features of nature may be mentioned the appearance of the provinces on the rivers, during the ſeaſon of inundation, when an acceſs is opened by numerous channels to places before inland. The grand aſpect of the northern mountains covered with ſnow, and the wide deſert on the eaſt of the Indus, are alſo grand features; as is the high table land of Myſore, ſupported by natural buttreſſes of mountains. The Sunderbunds, and prodigious foreſts, have been already mentioned. The detached ridges of rock, ſometimes crowned with ſtrong fortreſſes, may alſo be named among the natural curioſities. But one of the moſt noted in the Hindoo tradition is the Gangoutra or fall of the Ganges, ſometimes called the Cow's Mouth. According to the report of a Bramin, who pretended to have viſited the ſpot, the Ganges ſprings from the Peak of Cailaſa, ſeven days' journey to the ſouth of Ladac or Latac, the capital of a ſmall Tibetian principality.[31] This peak is about two miles to the ſouth of Manſaror; and the river thence flows, for about ſeven or eight miles, when it finds a ſubterranean paſſage, "until it again emerges in the country of Kedar Nauth, at the place called Gungowtry." This place is marked in Mr. Arrowſmith's Map as ſituated on that ſource of the Ganges called the Aliknundra; and it ſeems proved, by Mr. Hardwick's journey to Sirinagur, that the veneration of the natives, and the Braminical ſtations on its ſhores, confirm the Bramin's report, and proclaim the Aliknundra to be the real and genuine Ganges, being perhaps the furtheſt ſource erroneouſly laid down in the map of Tibet by the lamas, (if theſe ſuppoſed ſources do not rather flow into the Indus;) as almoſt every name and poſition laid down by them will probably be found extremely inaccurate. It ſeems probable that the ſource of the Ganges is in a calcareous country, whence the river eaſily works itſelf a ſubterraneous paſſage, as ſeveral Natural Curioſities.

[31] Aſ. Reſ. v. 45. vi. 102.

Natural Curiosities.

ſtreams in the north of England, and other calcareous countries. Adam's bridge is alſo a noted fable of the Bramins, for in their ſtrong imaginations and weak judgments every thing aſſumes a fabulous tinge. It is a kind of ſand bank, with ſome iſles ſtretching from a promontory to the oppoſite iſle of Ceylon: but the name of Rama has been exchanged by the Mahometans for that of Adam.

CHAPTER II.

GANGETIC HINDOSTAN, OR THE COUNTRIES ON THE GANGES:

*Extent and Diviſions.—Britiſh Poſſeſſions.—Revenue.—Government.—Army.—Navy.—Cities and Towns.—Surrounding States.—*BOOTAN.*—*NIPAL.*—*SIRINAGUR.*

Extent and Diviſions.

THIS grand diviſion of Hindoſtan extends from the eaſtern boundaries of Bengal to the country of Sirhind, a length of about a thouſand B. miles. The greateſt breadth, from the ſources of the Chumbul to the mountains of Sewalik, may be about four hundred and fifty B. miles; and the leaſt, on the weſt of the province of Bengal, about two hundred and thirty. It compriſes the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, Oude, Agra; with part of Delhi and Agimere, and of Malwa in the ſouth; moſt of them equal in celebrity to any in Hindoſtan, and the choſen ſeats of the power of the Monguls, as well as of mighty kingdoms even in claſſical times.

Britiſh Poſſeſſions.

Bengal, Bahar, with Benares, and ſome other diſtricts to the weſt, forming the chief baſis and centre of Engliſh power in this country, it is proper firſt to conſider them apart, and then proceed to ſome account of the other provinces. The Britiſh ſettlements here extend about five hun-

dred and fifty miles in length by three hundred in breadth, in themſelves a powerful kingdom. The native population is computed at ten or eleven millions of black ſubjects; excluſive of the Engliſh, whoſe number ſeems not authenticated. Yet Sir William Jones, from the actual enumeration of one province, concluded that not leſs than thirty millions of Hindoos were contained in all the Britiſh poſſeſſions in Hindoſtan. But Major Rennell eſtimates the entire population in the time of Aurungzeb at ſixty millions; and it ſeems unreaſonable to think that repeated wars have increaſed the population, or that one half is ſubject to the Britiſh ſceptre. BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

The revenue of theſe Britiſh provinces is computed at 4,210,000l. ſterling; the expence of collection, military and civil charges, &c. 2,540,000l.; ſo that the clear revenue is 1,670,000l.[1] They are well ſituated in reſpect to ſecurity from foreign invaſion: were obtained in 1765, under circumſtances rather favourable, as the charge of uſurpation might have been retorted againſt any adverſary: and ſince they were in our poſſeſſion, they have enjoyed more tranquillity than any part of Hindoſtan has known ſince the reign of Aurungzeb. Revenue.

The government of Bengal, and its wide dependencies, was firſt veſted in a Governor General and a Supreme Council, conſiſting of a preſident and eleven counſellors; but in 1773 theſe were reſtricted to four, with Warren Haſtings the Governor General, who were to direct all affairs, civil and military, in the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa; and to controul the inferior governments of Madras on the E., and Bombay on the W., with Bencoolen in the iſland of Sumatra.[2] The Court of Judicature conſiſts of a chief juſtice and three other judges, with civil, criminal, naval, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction. The Hindoos are governed by their own laws; but it is to be wiſhed that in theſe and the other Britiſh poſſeſſions the abominable influence of the Bramins were extinguiſhed, and theſe fanatics themſelves degraded to the caſt of Pariars; or rather that the caſts were totally aboliſhed, as the moſt ſhocking obſtacle to all the beſt feelings and exertions of human nature, that ever was impoſed by crafty ſuperſtition upon conſummate igno- Government.

[1] Rennell, cxiv. [2] Pennant, ii. 327.

rance:

Government. rance and ſimplicity. Chriſtian charity, and the mutual benefits of ſociety, with what our immortal poet ſtyles the milk of human kindneſs, might then ſupplant a dreary ſuperſtition which eſtranges man from man, and is accompanied, even in its prieſts, by practices the moſt degrading to human nature.*

Army. The military eſtabliſhment in Bengal is always reſpectable, but varies according to the ſituation of affairs. The Britiſh troops are ſupported by the Sepoys, a native militia, who are accuſtomed to have numerous idle followers, ſo that the effective men ſeldom conſtitute more than a quarter of the nominal army. A force of twenty thouſand Britiſh ſoldiers might probably encounter and vanquiſh two hundred thouſand blacks or Hindoos. The deciſive battle of Plaſſey, which ſecured to us the poſſeſſion of theſe opulent provinces, was gained by the formidable array of nine hundred Europeans.[3] It would ſeemingly be no difficult acquiſition, and might prove moſt ſalutary for the tranquillity and happineſs of the Hindoos, if their whole extenſive country were ſubjected to the Britiſh power. For theſe ſubjects of the wiſe Bramins are of all nations the moſt miſerable; and political freedom is to them as unknown as real practical wiſdom is to their teachers. In human affairs the ſmaller evil is commonly the ſole object of preference.

Navy. A navy of conſiderable force might be equipped, and the ſhips conſtructed of teak wood, as it is ſuppoſed to ſurpaſs any others in duration.

Cities and Towns. Calcutta. The chief city of Bengal, and of all the Britiſh poſſeſſions in Hindoſtan, is Calcutta, which is ſaid to contain not leſs than half a million of ſouls. The latitude is 22° 33′ north; and the longitude 88° 28′ eaſt from Greenwich.

"Generally ſpeaking, the deſcription of one Indian city is a deſcription of all; they being all built on one plan, with exceeding narrow, con-

* See in the Aſiatic Reſearches, iv. 336. the matricides and infanticides of the pious, ſimple, and philoſophic Bramins; and, v. 372. their inſtitutions of human ſacrifices! Yet their cruel mercy, p. 381, ordered that a woman ſhould never be ſacrificed—except on the funeral pile of her huſband! Such are the objects of antiquarian veneration: and ſuch are the favourite ſages of Voltaire!

[3] Rennell, xcv.

fined,

fined, and crooked ſtreets; with an incredible number of reſervoirs and ponds, and a great many gardens, interſperſed. A few of the ſtreets are paved with brick. The houſes are variouſly built: ſome of brick, others with mud, and a ſtill greater proportion with bamboos and mats: and theſe different kinds of fabrics ſtanding intermixed with each other, form a motley appearance: thoſe of the latter kind are invariably of one ſtory, and covered with thatch. Thoſe of brick ſeldom exceed two floors, and have flat, terraced roofs. The two former claſſes far outnumber the laſt, which are often ſo thinly ſcattered, that fires, which often happen, do not ſometimes meet with the obſtruction of a brick-houſe through a whole ſtreet. CITIES AND TOWNS.

"Calcutta is, in part, an exception to this rule of building; for there the quarter inhabited by the Engliſh is compoſed entirely of brick-buildings, many of which have more the appearance of palaces than of private houſes: but the remainder of the city, and by much the greateſt part, is built as I have deſcribed the cities in general to be. Within theſe twenty or twenty-five years Calcutta has been wonderfully improved, both in appearance and in the ſalubrity of its air: for the ſtreets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled up; thereby removing a vaſt ſurface of ſtagnant water, the exhalations from which were particularly hurtful. Calcutta is well known to be the emporium of Bengal, and the ſeat of the Governor-General of India. It is a very extenſive and populous city, being ſuppoſed at preſent to contain at leaſt 500,000 inhabitants. Its local ſituation is not fortunate; for it has ſome extenſive muddy lakes, and a vaſt foreſt, cloſe to it. It is remarkable that the Engliſh have been more inattentive than other European nations* to the natural advantages of ſituation in their foreign ſettlements. Calcutta is ſituated on the weſtern arm of the Ganges, at about one hundred miles from the ſea; and the river is navigable up to the town, for the largeſt ſhips that viſit India. It is a modern city; having riſen on the ſite of the village of Govindpour, about ninety years ago. It has a citadel, ſuperior in every point, as it regards ſtrength and correctneſs of deſign, to any fortreſs in India: but on too extenſive

* Surely not more than the Dutch. It ariſes from imitation of the ſites in their own countries, while in hot countries the ſituations ſhould be high.

a ſcale

Cities and Towns.

a ſcale to anſwer the uſeful purpoſe intended, that of holding a poſt in caſe of extremity; ſince the number of troops required for a proper garriſon for it could keep the field. It was begun immediately after the victory at Plaſſey, which inſured to the Britiſh an unlimited influence in Bengal: and the intention of Lord Clive was to render it as permanent as poſſible, by ſecuring a tenable poſt at all times. Clive, however, had no foreſight of the vaſt expence attending it, which perhaps may have been equal to two millions ſterling."*

In this grand capital of Britiſh Aſia the mixture of people and manners preſents a pictureſque and intereſting ſcene. The black Hindoo, the olive coloured Moor or Mahometan, contraſt with the fair and florid countenances of the Engliſh; and the charms of the European damſel receive a foil from the dark Hindoo beauties. To the luxuries of the Aſiatic, are added the elegance and ſcience of the Engliſh, life. Even the newſpapers are drawn up with care, and printed with elegance: and the Aſiatic ſociety, inſtituted by the late admirable Sir William Jones, may perhaps rival the Academy of Inſcriptions at Paris, if the papers of the latter were adopted as a model: and that unaccountable taſte, or rather infatuation for viſionary antiquities, attempted to be diſcuſſed by crude knowledge, and inaccurate ratiocination, were finally diſmiſſed from Britiſh culture, to which it ſeems peculiar and indigenous. No human purſuit can be more uſeleſs, for it has not even the utility of amuſement; and when founded on the monſtrous tales, and traditions, and innumerable forged manuſcripts of the Bramins, who pervert every ſcience and inſtitution to the purpoſes of their own influence, it is no wonder that this ſingular purſuit ſhould diffuſe darkneſs inſtead of light; that every diſſertator ſhould confute his predeceſſor by his own pundit, and his own manuſcripts, always as ancient as Brahma, if they be not of the preſent century: ſo that the more we read the leſs we know; and ſcience becomes another term for confuſion. With ſuch exceptions, and they are not numerous, the Aſiatic Reſearches form a noble monument of Britiſh ſcience in a diſtant country. The recent inſtitution of a college or univerſity at Calcutta, by the Marquis of Welleſley, deſerves the greateſt applauſe, for the ex-

* Rennell, 58, 59.

tent

tent and liberality of the plan. Beſides Hindoo, Mahometan, and Engliſh law, and the local regulations, there are to be profeſſors of civil juriſprudence, political economy, geography, hiſtory, &c.; but in the modern extent of ſcience, natural hiſtory is far too wide for one or two profeſſors, and it is ſcarcely poſſible for a good botaniſt to be at the ſame time deeply ſkilled in zoology, or in mineralogy, far leſs in chymiſtry.* Cities and Towns.

The commerce of Calcutta is very great in ſalt, ſugar, opium, ſilks, and muſlins, &c.: the poppy which yields the opium is particularly cultivated in the province of Bahar. Muſk, borax, and other commodities, uſed to be imported from Tibet, in exchange for European cloths and hardware; but this trade is probably interrupted ſince Tibet became ſubject to the jealous Chineſe. On the Ganges are tranſported to Aſam cargoes of ſalt, in exchange for gold, ſilver, ivory, muſk, and a particular kind of ſilky cotton. The cowry ſhells, uſed as a ſmall coin, are imported from the Maldives in exchange for rice. The fine muſlins are chiefly fabricated in the rainy ſeaſon, from May to September, and with calicoes form a great part of the exports to Europe.

In the eaſtern part of the Britiſh poſſeſſions the moſt conſiderable town is Dacca, beyond the principal ſtream of the Ganges, but defended on the eaſt by the Megna or Burrampoot. Dacca is celebrated for manufactures of the moſt delicate muſlins, ſo much in requeſt in the European market, and which are made from the cotton of the diſtrict. It was once the capital of Bengal, and was ſucceeded by Muſhedabad, a modern city. Hoogley, or Ugli, is a ſmall but ancient city, about twenty-ſix miles above Calcutta, on the grand weſtern branch of the Ganges, which thence receives its name. Dacca.

Patna is the capital of the province of Bahar, ſituated about 400 miles N. W. from Calcutta, being tolerably fortified, and a place of conſiderable trade, moſt of the ſaltpetre in particular, exported to England, being made in the province of Bahar. Rennell argues that Patna is the ancient city of Palibothra. Dr. Robertſon infers that it was Allahabad, which is alſo the opinion of D'Anville. Sir William Jones ſup- Patna.

* Aſiatic Regiſter, vol. ii. p. 106. The languages to be taught are Arabic, Perſian, Sanſcret, Hindoſtanee, Bengal, Telinga, Maratta, Tamula, and Canara.

Cities and Towns.

poſes that Palibothra ſtood at the junction of the Soan or Sona with the Ganges; that is, he nearly coincides with Major Rennell.' Yet upon the whole the unprejudiced inſpector of Ptolemy may perhaps prefer Allahabad.

Benares.

Benares approaches to the weſtern frontier of the Britiſh poſſeſſions, the diſtrict having been ceded to the Eaſt India Company in the year 1775. It is a rich, populous, and compact city, on the northern bank of the Ganges, about 460 miles from Calcutta. Benares, anciently called Kaſi, was the moſt early ſeat of Braminical knowledge, or quackery, in the north. It was not till the tenth or eleventh century of the Chriſtian æra that this baleful ſect overturned the worſhip of Boodh in the Deccan. The Bramins ſeem to be firſt mentioned by Strabo, who diſtinguiſhes them from another race of Indian philoſophers called Germani; who were probably the Gymnoſophiſti of other authors, and worſhippers of Boodh.*

Allahabad.

On leaving the Britiſh poſſeſſions, and proceeding towards the weſt, firſt occurs Allahabad, in the province ſo called, at the confluence of the Jumna and the Ganges, a city belonging to the Navab or Nabob of Oude, but of little conſequence. Not far to the S. W. of Allahabad are the diamond mines of Penna, in the ſmall detached province of Bundelcund.

Lucknow is the preſent capital of Oude, having ſuperſeded Fyzabad, a city on the Gogra, near the ancient city of Aiudh, which ſeems to have given name to the province. At a conſiderable diſtance to the N. W. is Berilli, a ſmall but noted town near the northern frontier.

Ancient capitals.

About 50 B. miles W. from Lucknow ſtands Canoge, anciently the capital of a kingdom. Before proceeding to Agra and Delhi, modern capitals of Hindoſtan, it may be proper to obſerve that the kingdoms celebrated by the Braminical, or northern traditions and fables were

s Aſ. R. iv. 26. Mr. Wilford, with his uſual imagination, argues for the mouth of the Coſa on the oppoſite ſide of the Ganges!

* The Brachman nations of Pliny are the Barmahs, or Birmans, of modern times, who had probably invaded and ſeized a great part of Eaſtern Hindoſtan. Perhaps even the Βραχμανες of Strabo are the *Rachans* or Prieſts of the Birmans.

Where was Pliny's powerful kingdom of Andara in Gangetic Hindoſtan, and Automela on the Indus? That writer's geography is commonly neglected, though one of the beſt of antiquity.

chiefly in this part of Hindoſtan. The reader is ſometimes bewildered by the uſe of native terms, or uncommon orthography, without any explanation; but the learned Jones informs us that king Nanda, and the noted Chandragupta, the claſſical Sandracottus, reigned at Patna; and a kind of chronology of their ſucceſſors may be found in the Aſiatic Reſearches,[6] with tables of the kings of Audh, or Oude, and Vitora, or Delhi, both in the ſolar and lunar line, as they are divided by the wildneſs of Hindoo imagination; with another of the kings of Magada, or Bahar, the laſt of which contains Nanda and Chandragupta. Theſe liſts are inaccurate and confuſed, the Bramins being more converſant in quadrillions, trillions, and billions of years, than in diſcuſſing the little dates of European ſcholars.* The liſt of Rajas of Hindoſtan, from the time of the deluge, publiſhed by Anquetil du Perron, begins with Bhart who reſided at Haſtnapour on the Ganges, now Delhi; but the royal ſeat was afterwards tranſferred to Canuche, and the princes often paſſed the mountains of Sewalik to encounter the *Chineſe*, probably ſome wrong interpretation for Tibet. Benares is alſo mentioned as a capital; and it is boldly aſſerted that the eighty-fourth Raja, Andarjal, conquered all Hindoſtan with Ceylon; a conqueſt alſo effected by the hundred and ninth Raja. This liſt, which is certainly far ſuperior to any of the kind, cloſes with the conqueſt by the Mahometans, A. D. 1192. Perhaps our poſſeſſions in the ſouth may diſcloſe ſome chronologies of the kings in that quarter, particularly the Balharas. If anything can be done in arranging the fictions of the Bramins, and eliciting ſome ſhadow of truth, it muſt be begun by eſtabliſhing grand land marks of chronology, eſtabliſhed by various intelligence derived from remote quarters; and the ſafeſt courſe will be to trace it backward from modern to ancient times, and thus laying a ſolid foundation, inſtead of beginning with the fabulous in the vain hope of finding truth.

Cities and Towns.

Theſe capitals of ancient kingdoms in this quarter were followed by Agra and Delhi. The great and good emperor Acbar conſtituted Agra the capital of the Mogul empire about A. D. 1566. It was then

Agra.

[6] v. 318.

* The words uſed for thoſe high numbers are authorized by Sir William Jones, ii. 115; but they are unknown to Johnſon.

Cities and Towns.

a ſmall fortified town; but it ſoon became an extenſive and magnificent city, and has as rapidly declined.

Delhi.

To the N. W. of Agra, near the confines of Sindetic Hindoſtan, ſtands the celebrated city of Delhi, the Mahometan capital of India, ſaid to be of conſiderable antiquity by the name of Indarput. That intelligent traveller Bernier computes the extent of Delhi, in 1663, at three leagues, excluſive of the fortifications; and he repreſents Agra as of wider circuit. This metropolis may be ſaid to be now in ruins; but there are many noble and ſplendid remains of palaces with baths of marble.[7] The grand moſk is a magnificent edifice, of marble and red free ſtone, with high minarets, and domes richly gilt. One of the quarters of the city has been very thinly inhabited, ſince the dreadful maſſacre by Nadir Shah, in which one hundred thouſand people are ſaid to have periſhed. The royal gardens of Shalimar are ſaid to have coſt one million ſterling, in canals, pavillions, &c. decorated with great profuſion. When our author viſited this city, in 1793, he was introduced to the laſt remnant of the Moguls, Shah Allum, then ſeventy years of age and blind, being here kept in a kind of captivity by Sindia the Maratta chief.

Oujein.

The city of Agimere, or Ajimer, may be more properly allotted, with the greater part of that province, to Sindetic Hindoſtan: but Oujein may be conſidered as the furtheſt city in the ſouth of that portion now under view. Oujein is about ſix miles in circumference, ſurrounded by a ſtrong wall, with round towers. The houſes partly brick, partly wood, covered with lime, traſs, or tiles: the Bazar, or market is ſpacious, and paved with ſtone: there are four moſks, and ſeveral Hindoo temples, with a new palace built by Sindia. On the ſouth runs the river Sippara, which here ſuddenly turns north, purſuing its courſe into the Chumbul, the laſt a large river, not leſs than three quarters of a mile in breadth at ſome diſtance from its egreſs into the Jumma.[8] About a mile to the north are ruins of old Oujein, brick walls, ſtone pillars, pieces of wood, and various utenſils, with ancient coins. The ſuperjacent ſoil is a black mould; and this cataſtrophe muſt have happened when the river changed its courſe to the weſtward,

[7] Aſ. Reſ. iv. 417.

[8] Ib vi. 40.

by

by ſome aqueous concuſſion of nature, 1800, or 800 years ago, as uſual in Hindoo chronology. Cities and Towns.

Turning to the eaſt, the river Nerbudda may for a part be conſidered as the moſt ſouthern limit of Gangetic Hindoſtan; yet concerning Gurrah, a city or town of ſome note, there are no details; and the other names are too unimportant for general geography. But the noted fort of Gwalior muſt not be omitted, being a ſtriking object in Hindoo topography. The inſulated rock on which it ſtands is about four miles in length, but narrow: the ſides are almoſt perpendicular, from two to three hundred feet, above the ſurrounding plain.[9] On the top there is a town with wells and reſervoirs, and ſome cultivated land. This celebrated fortreſs, which is about 80 miles to the ſouth of Agra, was taken by ſurprize by a few Engliſh under Major Popham in 1779. Such iſolated forts on rocks were not uncommon in ancient India; and that of Aornos is diſtinguiſhed in the hiſtory of Alexander. A theoriſt might argue that theſe are the ſummits of ancient mountains, immerſed in the rich vegetable ſoil of Hindoſtan, which has been ſwept by primeval waters from the mountains of Tibet, now barren rocks, and even from the elevated deſert of Cobi, which in conſequence was left a barren maſs of ſand. Gwalior.

Before cloſing this brief delineation of Gangetic Hindoſtan, the moſt large, celebrated, and beſt known quarter of that extenſive region, it may be proper to offer ſome remarks on the ſurrounding ſtates on the E. and N. The Roſhawn of Rennell is the ſame with Aracan, being merely a Hindoo term for that country. His Coſſay is only another name for Meckley, or the country of the Muggaloos, a people between Aſam on the north, and Aracan on the ſouth, whoſe chief town is Munnipura.[10] Theſe eaſtern tribes of rude mountaineers are little known; but approach to the ſavage ſtate. Aſam has been already briefly deſcribed in the account of the river Burrampoot; but to the weſt open the wide and obſcure regions of Tibet. It would ſeem, from Mr. Hardwick's journey to Sirinagur, that the name of Bootan includes moſt of the ſouth of Tibet, particularly thoſe regions which are omitted in the doubtful map of the Lamas, who, in their account of theſe frontiers, Surrounding States. Bootan.

[9] Hodges, 139.

[10] Aſ. Reſ. v. 223 and 230.

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Surrounding States.

uſe Chineſe or Tataric terms, or perhaps rather invented appellations at leaſt equally uſeleſs, as they are alike unknown to the Hindoos and the natives. The names indeed throughout du Halde's maps of Tatary and Tibet are far too numerous, a circumſtance uſual in the old invented maps, in the firſt ages of European geography, in which even farms and huts were ſometimes inſerted. It is to be regretted that Turner, in his journey, has not indicated the weſtern limits of Bootan,

Nipal.

nor the native reports concerning the adjacent countries. Of Nipal there is a ſhort account by a Jeſuit,[11] whence the maps might be ſomewhat improved; that of Du Halde cloſing with Nialma, and ſome names not to be found in the genuine accounts, ſo that the Lamas appear to have been ſtopped in their progreſs by the ſnowy ridge of Himmala. The recent account by Bernini bears that, in paſſing the frontier mountains, ſuddenly appears the extenſive plain of Nipal, about 200 miles in circumference, reſembling a vaſt amphitheatre covered with populous towns and villages. To the north of the plain is the capital Catmandu, containing about eighteen thouſand houſes, which might yield a population of ſeventy or eighty thouſand. To the S. W. is Lelit Pattan, where the author computes twenty-four thouſand houſes; this part of the country bordering to the ſouth on the ſmall ſtate of Macwanpur, between Nipal, and Hindoſtan. The third principal city ſtands to the eaſt of the laſt mentioned, and is called Batgan. Timi and Cipoli are alſo large towns; and all theſe names being unknown to the Lamas it is evident that their progreſs was here impeded; and in the ſouth and weſt of Tibet in particular deſerves no credit. In Nipal there are two religious ſects, one a ſchiſm of that of Tibet, the other Hindoo. The temples, by this account, are peculiarly elegant, ſeeming to reſemble thoſe of Ava or Siam. At Banga, a caſtle three miles diſtant from the city of Lelit Pattan, is a temple of ſurpriſing magnificence, the great court being paved with bluiſh marble, interſperſed with large flowers of bronze. To the north of Catmandu is a hill called Simbi, upon which are ſome tombs of the Lamas of Tibet, with inſcriptions. By the Jeſuit's account the kingdom of Nipal is

[11] Aſ. Reſ. ii. 307 Giuſeppe Bernini, who died in 1753. His works were printed at Verona in 1767.

ancient,

ancient, and the language peculiar; but it has recently been injured by civil wars, foſtered by the king of Gorca. To the weſt of Nipal are not leſs than twenty-four petty kingdoms, one of which is Lamgi; another to the ſouth is called Tirhut. The king of Gorca has recently effected the conqueſt of Nipal, and of the Ciratas to the caſt; and other kingdoms as far as the borders of Coch Bihar. Amidſt theſe multifarious names, there is not one known to the lamas; and it appears that the wide regions of Tibet, and its dependencies, may be pronounced, in this the beginning of the nineteenth century, to be almoſt utterly unknown.* SURROUNDING STATES.

To the weſt of Nipal the ſtates of Gorca, and Kemaoon on the Gogra, are arranged on the frontiers of Gangetic Hindoſtan. Of theſe countries little is known: but it is to be hoped that the Aſiatic Society will ſend ſcientific men to examine them, with the remainder of Tibet and weſtern Tatary. This attempt would merit the higheſt applauſe; and the jealouſy of the Chineſe might perhaps ſubſide upon being informed of the merely ſcientific nature of the deſign, or be illuded by diſguiſe, or pretenſions to the Hindoo faith, for a Bramin might travel in any direction. In the whole circle of geography there does not remain a range of diſcovery ſo curious and important. The centre of Africa can preſent little of general intereſt; while that of Aſia may be regarded as the cradle of nations which have been diffuſed over our whole hemiſphere.

Of Sirinagur, laid down in the maps as the moſt northern frontier country, an intereſting account has recently appeared.[12] The mountains between Hardwar and the higher region are often of argillaceous marl, though the rivulets roll down maſſes of opake quartz and granite. Foreſts abound; and many curious vegetables delight the eye of the botaniſt. To the north is ſeen the lofty chain of ſnowy mountains, paſſing in an extenſive line from eaſt to weſt. This range, inſtead of being about fifteen miles, as ſuppoſed, to the N. of the town of Sirina- Sirinagur.

* The miſſionaries were confined to particular diſtricts, but the curious reader may conſult the materials of Caſſiano in the *Alphabetum Tibetanum* of Giorgi, and the Let. Edif. tome 15., with Aſtley's Collection, vol. 4. and Phil. Tranſ. 68. See Rennell, 307. Du Halde, iv. 571. gives a ſlight account of his map of the country.

[12] Aſ. Reſ. vi. 309.

gur,

Surrounding States.

gur, is ſaid by our traveller to be not leſs than eighty Engliſh miles. One of the moſt conſpicuous ſummits is that of Hem, riſing in four or five conical peaks; and near its baſe is a place of Hindoo worſhip called Buddrinaut. Upon approaching the town, the rocks were a coarſe dull granite, with beds of argillaceous ſchiſtus. Several rivulets deſcend into the Aliknundra, here acknowledged by the Hindoos as the genuine and divine Ganges. The Raja is of the Hindoo faith; but the country, a maſs of mountains, extremely poor. The channel of the river is here not leſs than two hundred and fifty yards in breadth; which if the Bagharitì exceed, it muſt be a noble ſtream.* The ſands are waſhed for gold; and about forty miles to the north of the town are two copper mines, with one of lead about fifty miles to the eaſt. The natives follow the Hindoo faith; and Mr. Hardwick has publiſhed a curious liſt of the Rajas, in which the reigns are put ridiculouſly long; but as they are in number ſixty-one, they cannot well aſcend much above ſix hundred years. It is to be regretted that he did not proceed to the ſource of the Ganges, computed to be fourteen days diſtant, probably not above a hundred and forty miles, through a rocky and difficult country. From the information of the natives, the courſe is E. and W. for about three days from Sirinagur; then N. E. and S. W., receiving many mountain ſtreams, and at Biſſenprag, a river from the E. as large as itſelf, called Dood Ganga, or the Milk river. Biſſenprag is near the baſe of a mountain, on which ſtands the famous temple of Buddrinaut. All theſe circumſtances unite with the worſhip and temples of the Hindoos to evince that this river is the genuine Ganges: but the moſt recent maps of this part of Tibet ſeem very defective in poſitions; and it would appear, among others, that Caſhmir is far more near to Sirinagur than is commonly ſuppoſed.

* Rennell, 370, allows that the Aliknundra is the larger ſtream; yet he unaccountably ſuppoſes the other to be the true Ganges, in oppoſition to the Hindoos and Bramins themſelves upon the ſpot.

CHAPTER III.

SINDETIC HINDOSTAN; OR THE COUNTRIES ON THE RIVER SINDEH OR INDUS.

Extent.—Weſtern Boundary of Hindoſtan.—Chief Cities and Towns.

THIS part extends from the northern mountains of Caſhmir, and the Hindoo Koh, in the north of Cabul, to the mouth of the Indus, a length of about nine hundred B. miles, and about three hundred and fifty in medial breadth. Beſides part of the provinces of Delhi and Agimer, it contains the extenſive province of Moultan, with Lahore, Caſhmir, Cabul, the frontier region of Candahar, and that of Sindi at the mouth of the Indus. Theſe provinces being the moſt remote from the ſeat of Britiſh power, and the greater part of modern travellers having viſited Hindoſtan by ſea, they are leſs accurately known than any other quarter. EXTENT.

The chief cities which occur in this extenſive region are Lahore, Caſhmir, Cabul, Ghizni or Gaſna, Candahar, Moultan, and Tatta in the Sindean Delta. On the eaſt of the Indus, or in Panjab, the Seiks, a new religious ſect, form the leading power; while on the weſt, and even as far as Caſhmir, the dominions of a Perſian Shah, whoſe ſeat of empire is at Candahar, compriſe all the provinces, with ſeveral in the eaſt of Perſia, and to him even Sindi is tributary. Yet by many geographers the river Indus is eſteemed as the boundary between Perſia and Hindoſtan, in which view the Perſian Shah poſſeſſes little in proper Hindoſtan, except the country of Caſhmir. But D'Anville, in his large map of the world as known to the ancients, has juſtly arranged in ancient India large countries to the weſt of the Indus, including not only all the ſtreams that join that river from the weſt, but even the river Tomerus, correſponding with the Haur of modern maps, which ſeems infallibly to have belonged to the Perſian province of Gedroſia. Pliny conſiders Weſtern Boundary.

Western Boundary.

the Indus as the extreme weſtern boundary of India;[1] which from Strabo appears to have been the received opinion, from the age of Alexander to his own time. Arrian alſo deſcribes the river Indus as the weſtern boundary of this country, but including the Delta, and on the N. W. bounded by the Hindoo Koh, ſo that even the Kameh and Comul were Indian ſtreams, being the Gurcus and Cophenes of antiquity, the laſt ſpecially mentioned by the accurate Arrian as Indian. Hence it is evident that when Major Rennell regards the Sindeh as the weſtern boundary of Hindoſtan, he has not expreſſed the opinion either of ancient or modern geographers; the Hindoo Koh, or Indian Caucaſus of the ancients, being the N. W. boundary; and even towards the ſouth, where the limits of Perſia do not ſeem to have been accurately defined, Ptolemy indicates a conſiderable ſpace on the W. of the river as included in India, an opinion adopted by D'Anville not only in his ancient geography, but in his modern map of Aſia; in which indeed, by a miſtake in the chain of the mountains, he has included the city of Candahar in Perſia, but ſeems on the other hand too far to have extended the limits on the ſouth, when he has included even the town of Guadal in Hindoſtan.* As Major Rennell juſtly conſiders the city of Candahar as the gate of Hindoſtan towards Perſia, while Cabul ſtands in the ſame view towards Tatary, it is evident that the Sindeh cannot be conſidered as a boundary.[2] The ſouthern limit between Sindi and Mekran he does not define; but it may be regarded as extending to the river Araba, the Arabius of Ptolemy. The cauſe of this uncertainty in the S. E. of Perſia is that the country is wild and deſert, and has in all ages been thinly inhabited, having been ſo much neglected that it is chiefly poſſeſſed by Arabian fiſhers from the oppoſite ſhores.

This diſcuſſion became neceſſary to illuſtrate the provinces and boundaries of Sindetic Hindoſtan; and it will hence appear that when either ancient or modern geographers ſpeak of the Indus as a weſtern

[1] vi. 17.

* Chardin, and ſeveral other travellers in Perſia, conſider the Indus as its weſtern boundary; but the idea is vague and objectionable. Dr. Vincent, an able enquirer into the voyage of Nearchus, obſerves, page 198, that the Arabitæ and Oritæ, on the weſt of the Indus, were Indian tribes.

[2] 153. 167. compared with page xix.

boundary,

boundary, the expreſſion is only to be taken in a looſe ſenſe, as when they ſpeak of India beyond the Ganges, in which they include the Burrampooter, and ſeveral ſtreams to the eaſt of that majeſtic river. Western Boundary.

This brief account of Sindetic Hindoſtan ſhall begin with the N. E. and end with the S. W., after mentioning that Agimer, which may be regarded as the moſt eaſtern city of this diviſion, is little remarkable, except for a ſtrong fortreſs on a hill.

The town of Sirhind is placed by modern maps on the river Caggar, which D'Anville bends weſt into the Indus, but Major Rennell ſuppoſes it to follow a detached courſe into the gulph of Cutch: perhaps it may be loſt in the great ſandy deſert. Chief Cities and Towns.

Lahore, now the capital of the Seiks, was the reſidence of the firſt Mahometan conquerors, before they advanced to the more central parts; and including the ſuburbs, was ſuppoſed to be three leagues in length. From Lahore to Agra, near 500 Engliſh miles, there was an avenue of ſhady trees.[3] The river Rauvee paſſes by Lahore, being the Reva of the Hindoos, ſaid by them to derive its ſource from the mountain Vindhia, as the Sarjou from the Himar or Himala.[4] Weſdin adds that the Vindhia mountains occur in no map; but are in long. 94° from Ferro, and lat. 34°. He aſſerts that the Reva is the chief tributary ſtream of the Sindeh; but as he only viſited the Deccan, his diſtant intelligence ſeems erroneous, nor are his other Indian rivers eaſily explained. Lahore.

Almoſt due north from Lahore, at the ſuppoſed diſtance of about 200 B. miles, ſtands Caſhmir, the capital of the delightful province ſo called. This city is ſaid to be alſo called Sirinagur, having been confounded with the town of the ſame name, already mentioned in the account of Gangetic Hindoſtan. To avoid the confuſion ariſing from identity of names, it is better to follow the authorities of Bernier and Forſter, who denominate the capital of Caſhmir by the ſame term as the country. "The city, which in the ancient annals of India was known by the name of Siringnaghur, but now by that of the province at large, extends about three miles on each ſide of the river Jalum, over which are four or five wooden bridges, and occupies in ſome part of its breadth, which is irregular, about two miles. The houſes, many of Caſhmir.

[3] Rennell, 82; but others only extend it to Delhi.

[4] Weſdin, 232.

Chief Cities and Towns.

them two and three ſtories high, are ſlightly built of brick and mortar, with a large intermixture of timber. On a ſtanding roof of wood is laid a covering of fine earth, which ſhelters the building from the great quantity of ſnow that falls in the winter ſeaſon. This fence communicates an equal warmth in winter as a refreſhing coolneſs in the ſummer ſeaſon, when the tops of the houſes, which are planted with a variety of flowers, exhibit at a diſtance the ſpacious view of a beautifully checquered parterre. The ſtreets are narrow, and cheaked with the filth of the inhabitants, who are proverbially unclean. No buildings are ſeen in this city worthy of remark; though the Kaſmirians boaſt much of a wooden moſque called the Jumah Muſſid, erected by one of the emperors of Hindoſtan; but its claim to diſtinction is very moderate."[5] For a particular account of the country of Caſhmir the reader is referred to the ſame traveller, who informs us that this delicious vale extends in an oval form, about 90 miles from S. E. to N. W. It was ſubject to the Zagathai princes (a Tataric race, who ſpeak the ſame language with the Turks) till A. D. 1586, when it became ſubject to the Monguls, and afterwards to the Afgans. Rice is the common product of the plains; while the ſurrounding hills yield wheat, barley, and other crops. The celebrated ſhawls are only manufactured here: the material being from Tibet, eſpecially thoſe diſtricts which lye at a month's journey to the north eaſt.* The price at the loom is from 20s. to 5l.: and the revenue is tranſmitted to the Afgan capital in this fabric. The Caſhmirians are ſtout and well formed, but their features often coarſe and broad, even thoſe of the women, who in this northern part of India are of a deeper brown complexion than thoſe of ſouthern France or Spain. The dreſs is inelegant; but the people gay and lively, and fond of parties of pleaſure on their delicious lake. The Afgan government has however ſomewhat cruſhed their ſpirit. The language is derived frem the Sanſcret, but the Perſian is chiefly uſed in elegant compoſition. During the ſummer heats, the great Moguls uſed to retire to Caſhmir, where they enjoyed a cool and refreſhing climate.

[5] Forſter, vol. ii.

* Forſter's Travels, ii. 18: if this intelligence be genuine, it evinces very groſs errors in modern maps, which ſuppoſe the northern boundaries of Tibet to be the ſame with thoſe of Caſhmir. The N. mountains of Tibet would thus give ſource to the rivers of Little Bucharia.

The

The wide ſpace from Caſhmir to Cabul is more remarkable for numerous ſtreams and mountains than any other circumſtance; and the conquerors of India preferred the ſouth. Even in Cabul the mountains are ſaid to be covered with perpetual ſnow; but the country is diverſified with gentle hills, fertile vales, and ſtately foreſts. It is alſo interſected by many ſtreams; and beſides delicate fruits and flowers, is abundant in other productions. Ghizni was the ancient capital of the country, of which Candahar was then reckoned a part.[6] The city of Cabul is the capital of the dominions of the Perſian Shah, uſually ſtyled King of Candahar, whoſe dominions extend weſtward beyond the ſea of Durrah, including a great part of Coraſan, with the large Perſian province of Segiſtan, being about 800 B. miles in length by about half that breadth. Cabul is eſteemed a conſiderable city, in a romantic and healthy ſituation.

CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS.

Cabul.

Ghizni or Gaſna is remarkable as the ſeat of the firſt Mahometan conquerors of Hindoſtan, whoſe empire almoſt correſponded with the modern kingdom of Candahar.

Ghizni.

The city which gives name to this laſt is of ſmall account, except as a noted paſs from Perſia into Hindoſtan.

Candahar.

Having thus reached the moſt weſtern frontier, and nothing further worthy of commemoration ariſing on that ſide of the Sindeh, it will be proper to purſue the courſe of that grand ſtream towards the ſouth. The ſmall city and fortreſs of Attock were only built by Acbar, 1581; but the vicinity was memorable in ancient times as the general paſſage from India to the weſt. Mr. Forſter croſſed the Indus about twenty miles above Attock, and found it a rough rapid ſtream, about a mile in breadth, where it was not interrupted by iſles. This ſize indicates a remote ſource, and many tributary ſtreams. The water was extremely cold in July, and diſcoloured with fine black ſand.*

Attock.

Moultan, the capital of the province ſo called, is about 170 B. miles to the ſouth of Attock, on the large river Chunab, not far from its junction

Moultan.

[6] Rennell, 152.

* D'Anville places Aſhnagur on the Indus about 80 B. miles above Attock. This place, noted in Hindoo hiſtory (Weſdin, 36.), is omitted by Rennell, whoſe map of Hindoſtan is in the N. W. ſingularly reſtricted.

with

Chief Cities and Towns.

with the Indus, along which there is an uninterrupted navigation for veſſels of 200 tons, not only to this city but as far as Lahore.[7] Moultan is a ſmall city, and of little conſequence, except for its antiquity and cotton manufacture.

Tatta.

The laſt remarkable city on the Indus is Tatta, the capital of the province of Sindi, and ſituated within the Delta, the upper part of which is well cultivated, while the lower, inſtead of the lofty foreſts of the Gangetic Sunderbunds, preſents only low bruſhwood, ſwamps, and lakes. In the months of July, Auguſt, and September, when the S. W. monſoon brings rain in moſt parts of India, the atmoſphere is here often clouded, but no rain falls except near the ſea. At Tatta the heats are ſo violent, and the winds from the ſandy deſerts on the E. and N. W. ſo pernicious, that many precautions are uſed. The manufactures of this city in ſilk wool from Kerman, and cotton, have greatly declined. The Mahometan prince of Sindi is tributary to Candahar.

CHAPTER IV.

Central Hindostan, or the Middle Provinces.

Boundaries.—Chief Cities.—Sircars.—Ancient Trade.—Pyrates.

Boundaries.

THIS diviſion is chiefly bounded by Gangetic Hindoſtan on the north; and on the weſt by the ſandy deſert, and the ocean, The ſouthern limit is the river Kiſtna, with its tributary ſtream the Beema; while the eaſt is waſhed by the bay of Bengal. The length E. to W. from Jigat Point to Cape Palmiras, is little leſs than 1200 B. miles; while the medial breadth is about 400. In it are comprehended the

[7] Rennell, 178: yet, page 93, he mentions the river of Moultan as being choked up about 1665.

province of Oriſſa, with part of Golconda, Berar, Dowlatabad, Candeiſh, and Guzerat, and other diſtricts of inferior name; and on the eaſtern ſhore are the Britiſh provinces of the Sircars. BOUNDARIES.

In a natural tranſition from the diviſion of India laſt deſcribed, the province of Guzerat firſt preſents itſelf, like a large promontory; but the ſhores ſeem little adapted to commercial purpoſes. The chief city, Amedabad, is conſiderable, and well fortified, taken by the Engliſh under General Goddard in 1780, reſtored to the Marattas in 1783. Cambay, at the diſtance of more than fifty miles, may be called the ſea port of this capital; itſelf a handſome city, formerly of great trade in ſpice, ivory, ſilk, and cotton cloths; but the harbour was impeded with ſand and mud, and is now little frequented, the trade being chiefly transferred to Surat. The ſovereigns of Guzerat were not a little powerful, and long withſtood the power of the Monguls: and towards the eaſt of this province appears to have been the ſeat of the great Balhara, or Hindoo emperor of the Arabian authors, whoſe capital was Nahalwanah, or Nehalwarah, lat. 22°. but the oriental longitudes, or indeed the numerals in general, in their geographical works, are of noted inaccuracy.* Renaudot has however erred groſsly when he confounds the Balhara of central Hindoſtan with the Zamorin, or Samoory, the king of an extenſive territory around Calicut, whoſe name and diminiſhed ſplendour exiſt to this day. Edriſi, in the twelfth century, mentions that the people here were worſhippers of Boodh, the connection with the ſouth of Hindoſtan being more intimate than that with the north; to which laſt the worſhip of Brahma, and the ſect of the Bramins, appear to have been reſtricted at a late epoch. But the Arabian authors are certainly fabulous, when they ſuppoſe that the power of the Balhara extended even to China, when it probably only compriſed the central parts of Hindoſtan: yet their opinion of his power is indicated, as the fourth grand ſovereign in the world, with the emperors of China and Greece, and the Arabian chaliſs. Chief Cities. Amedabad. Cambay.

Surat was formerly more celebrated as the port whence the Mahometans of India embarked on their pilgrimage to Mecca, than for any Surat.

* The ancient Nerhwalah is now Puttan, N. of Amenadab, and was formerly the capital of Guzerat. Rennell, xlvi. 278. See a liſt of the kings in Bernoulli, i. 413. where the race of Bagela are perhaps the Balharas of the Arabs.

other

Chief Cities.

other circumſtance, though reported to have been an important city in ancient times. The Portugueſe ſeized Surat ſoon after their arrival in Hindoſtan; and it was among the firſt places in this country frequented by the Engliſh, of whoſe factory here a view may be found in Mandelſlo's Travels, who deſcribes the harbour as ſmall and incommodious; yet it was the only one on the weſtern coaſt in which ſhips could be ſecure during the monſoon rains from May to September.*

Bombay.

Bombay, at a conſiderable diſtance to the ſouth, is a well known Engliſh ſettlement, on a ſmall iſland, about ſeven miles in length, containing a very ſtrong capacious fortreſs, a large city, a dock yard, a marine arſenal.' It was ceded to the Engliſh in 1662 by the Portugueſe, as part of the dower of the queen of Charles II. In the ſame ſound, or ſmall bay, are the iſles of Salſett and Elephanta, in which are ſubterranean temples, which, as well as the grand monuments at Ellora, a conſiderable diſtance inland, are probably foundations of the great Balharas in the tenth or eleventh century; for the ſubjects are now known to belong to the common Hindoo ſyſtem, and might thus have been works of the moſt recent erection.

Other Cities.

On leaving the ſhore, and proceeding towards the eaſt of central Hindoſtan, firſt occurs the city of Burhampour, of ſmall note. Ellichpour is of conſiderable importance, being the chief city of Berar. Nagpour is the capital of the eaſtern diviſion of the Maratta empire, as Poona is of the weſtern, being a modern city of ſmall ſize. At Nagpour, which may be called the central city of Hindoſtan, the rainy ſeaſon commences with the S. W. monſoon.

Not far to the eaſt of this city begins that extenſive and unexplored wilderneſs, which is pervaded by the great river Bain or Baun Gonga, and terminates in the mountains bounding the Engliſh Sircars.† The

Sircars.

acquiſition

* For a recent account of Surat ſee Stavorinus, vol. ii. p. 479. The inhabitants are ſaid to be 500,000, a conſiderable part of whom are *Moors*, that is Arabs, Perſians, Monguls, Turks, profeſſing Mahometaniſm; but retaining ſome pagan rites, as the *ſalamma*, or ſalutation to the moon, &c.

' Rennell, 31.; the name is Portugueſe *Buon bahia*, a good bay.

† See Mr. Blunt's journey, above quoted, for minute details concerning this formerly obſcure region. Aſiat. Reg. ii. 128—200. This important journey appears to have been undertaken ſolely with geographical views; and it is ſaid that the Eaſt India Company entertain the highly laudable intention of publiſhing an entirely new map of Hindoſtan. The hitherto unexplored region

acquiſition of theſe provinces has been already mentioned in the firſt chapter. They preſent little memorable; for the famous temple of Jagernaut, which in reputation ſucceeded that of Sumnaut in Guzerat, deſtroyed by Mahmud of Ghizni in the eleventh century, ſtands to the north of the Chilka lake. Nor does there appear to be any capital city, or chief town, in the Delta of the Godaveri, or throughout the Sircars, the wide track of foreſt on the N. W. having prohibited inland trade or intercourſe. Maſulipatam is indeed a place of ſome account; but ſtanding on the northern branch of the Kiſtna, may be arranged in the ſouthern diviſion of Hindoſtan. Sircars.

On turning towards the weſt few places of note ariſe, except Aurungabad, a modern city, deriving its name from Aurungzeb, in whoſe time it was the capital of the Deccan, or parts to the ſouth of Hindoſtan proper. It was afterwards the metropolis of the Nizam's territory, till the preference was given to Hydrabad. Near this city is Dowlatabad, which gives name to the province, with a ſingular fortreſs on a peaked rock.[2] Aurungabad.

This central part of Hindoſtan nearly correſponds with the Deccan, or ſouthern countries of the Monguls, who did not paſs the Kiſtna till a recent period; and inſtead of uſing the term in its juſt acceptation, applied it to the ſouthern provinces of their empire. Though formerly the ſeat of great power, and the weſtern coaſts greatly frequented by foreign merchants of all nations, the harbours have ſince been im- Ancient Trade.

region appears to conſiſt almoſt entirely of high rocky mountains and foreſts, thinly inhabited by the Go .d., a naked, ſavage, and ferocious race, who extend even to the north of Corair; which laſt province abounds in game and many kinds of deer, with wild buffaloes, black bears, leopards, and particularly the royal tiger, the latter common in the ſylvan regions to the S., where they depopulate whole villages. Omercuntuc, which gives ſource to three rivers, the Nerbudda, the Soan, and the Jobala, (ſee Rochette's Map,) is a high table land; the rocks of red granite, and the ſoil of red clay. To the S. a great range of mountains proceeds between the Baun Gonga and Mahanada, giving ſource to ſtreams that flow E. and W. into theſe rivers. This ridge paſſes from Omercuntuc through Zelingana and Buſtar, to thoſe of the northern ſircars.

The Baun Gonga is alſo called the Waini, and riſes in the mountains of Chotecſgur. The river Inderowti is likewiſe conſiderable. The journey was not accompliſhed in all its objects; but has nevertheleſs greatly ſerved geography, and is accompanied with a journal of the route and bearings, and ſeveral aſtronomical obſervations.

[2] See the print, Bernoul i, i. 4°o.

Ancient Trade.

peded, and the commerce has declined, being now chiefly transferred to the Ganges, which preſents ſuch ſuperior advantages as amply compenſate for the greater diſtance of the voyage. The Roman and Arabian fame of the weſtern ſhores has vaniſhed; and ſilence prevails in the ſtreets of Barygaza or Baroach, the port of the great inland city Tagara, whence the products of India, gems, ivory, myrrh, pepper, ginger, and cotton cloths, plain or ornamented with flowers, were in the time of Arrian exported to the weſtern world.

In later times the ſouthern part of this coaſt was remarkable upon another account, being the choſen reſidence of daring pirates. Yet theſe freebooters were known even to Pliny and Ptolemy, being ſtimulated in all ages by the richneſs of the commerce. They reſembled on a ſmall ſcale the piratical ſtates of Barbary, and a ſucceſſion of *Angrias* was continued till 1756, when we ſeized Gheriah, the principal fortreſs.

CHAPTER V.

The Southern Division of Hindostan.

Boundaries.—Britiſh Poſſeſſions.—Chief Cities and Towns.

Boundaries.

THIS part, which may alſo be called the Deccan or South, in the moſt proper acceptation of the term,* is bounded, as already explained, by the river Kiſtna, and its moſt northern ſubſidiary ſtreams flowing into the Beema. Hence it will extend from the latitude of Bombay to the ſouthern point of Cape Comorin, about 830 B. miles in

* It was alſo called in general Carnada, or the Carnatic, (Renneil's laſt Memoir, page 20;) and was moſtly ſubject to one king or raja, whoſe capital was Bijanagur, on the ſouth bank of the river Toombudra, ſaid to have been founded by Belaldea, A. D. 1344, being thus placed to guard the northern frontier of his empire. The ruins are extenſive, ſeveral rugged hills and rocks being covered with temples ſtill beautiful: the circumference appears to be about eight miles. (Ib. 40.) The empire of Bijanagur ſeems to have continued about eight hundred years.]

length,

length, and about 350 of medial breadth. It contains nearly the whole of the province of Viſiapour, and the moſt important part of that of Golconda, with the central kingdom of Myſore, the long eaſtern province of Carnada, or the Carnatic, the principalities of Tanjore, Travancore, and the Samorins of Calicut, the pepper coaſt of Canara, and other diſtricts, of which Concam is ſuppoſed to be the Kamkam, which the Arabian authors mention as adjoining to the territory of the Balhara. In this diviſion of Hindoſtan may alſo be included the iſland of Ceylon, the coaſts of which are now poſſeſſed by the Engliſh, who have ſupplanted the Dutch; while the native princes retain the extenſive inland parts. Boundaries.

In addition to the diſtrict around Madras, the Britiſh power was, in 1792 and 1799, extended over wide provinces in the ſouth and weſt of Myſore, and Seringapatam the capital is alſo in our poſſeſſion, ſo that our territories in this portion of Hindoſtan only yield in extent and conſequence to thoſe on the Ganges. Seringapatam is not only detached, but is by its inland ſituation little adapted for a commercial capital; it may therefore be perhaps expected that Calicut, an ancient and celebrated emporium, or ſome other place on that coaſt, will be ſelected as a metropolitan town of the new acquiſitions. Britiſh Poſſeſſions.

In recent times Seringapatam may be regarded as the moſt important city in this portion of Hindoſtan. It is ſituated in an iſle, ſurrounded by the river Caveri, which is even here about five feet deep, and runs over a rocky channel. The length of this iſle is about four miles, and the breadth about a mile and a half; the weſtern ſide being allotted to the fortreſs, diſtinguiſhed by regular outworks, magnificent palaces, and lofty moſks; for Tippoo and his father were Mahometans, not averſe to the perſecution of the Hindoos and Chriſtians.[1] The environs were decorated with noble gardens; and among other means of defence was what is called the *bound hedge*, conſiſting of every thorny tree or cauſtic plant of the climate, planted to the breadth of from thirty to fifty feet. When the ſtrength of the fortifications of all kinds, and the number of Tippoo's troops and artillery, are conſidered, our repeated ſucceſſes muſt Chief Cities and Towns. Seringapatam.

[1] Pennant's View of Hindoſtan, vol. ii. p. 82.

Chief Cities and Towns.

afford a convincing proof that no climate can overcome British courage, conduct, and perſeverance.

In this central territory we alſo poſſeſs ſeveral conſiderable towns, Salem and Attore in the eaſt; Dindigul, Coimbetore, Palicaud, on the ſouth; and on the weſtern coaſt Paniany, Ferokabad, Calicut, now nearly deſerted, Tellicherri, Mangalore: and our northern poſſeſſion of Carwar is within forty miles of the Portugueſe ſettlement of Goa; while on the ſouth we approach within a like diſtance of Cochin. Of theſe

Calicut.

places Calicut is memorable as the firſt Indian port viſited by the Portugueſe under Vaſco de Gama, and as the ſeat of the Zamorins, who at that period appear to have poſſeſſed the whole Malabar coaſt from Goa to Cochin; and perhaps by the interruption of the Gauts or mountains of Sukhien, at Palicaud, where the only river of conſequence falls to the weſt, their power might extend inland; but at any rate it ſeems to have then rivalled any ſovereignty on the ſouth of the Kiſtna.

Madras.

The native rajas of Myſore, a part of whoſe dominions we have alſo ſhared, were princes of ſome eminence, ſupplanted by the Mahometan uſurpation of Hyder. In the Carnatic we have long held Madras, where our anceſtors ſettled abont 1640; but the fortreſs, which is ſtrong, and includes a regular well built city, is of modern date. Unhappily there is no port, nor is there indeed one haven for large veſſels, from the mouth of the Ganges to Trincomali on the eaſtern ſide of Ceylon, which renders this laſt of ſingular benefit to our commerce. Through this wide extent of fifteen degrees, or more than 1000 B. miles, the coaſt forms nearly an uniform line, infeſted with a dangerous ſurf, and ſcarcely acceſſible, except in the flat-bottomed boats of the country. But, if found neceſſary, European induſtry might certainly form a port at the wide but impeded mouths of the Godaveri, the Kiſtna, or the Caveri; and when our colonies ſhall have aſſumed a permanent and ſteady progreſs of population, it is probable that ſuch deſigns may be executed.

Arcot.

Not far from the weſtern frontier of our ſettlement at Madras ſtands Arcot, eſteemed the capital of Carnada, or the Carnatic. The Navab*

* This word, alſo written *Nabob*, implies lieutenant-governor, or viceroy; but the title became hereditary.

often

often reſides at Madras. In his dominions there are ſeveral celebrated temples, viſited by numerous pilgrims; and in general the ſouthern parts of Hindoſtan diſplay more numerous edifices, and other marks of civilization, than the northern. Yet the ſucceſſive ſettlements of the Arabs, and latterly of many European nations, ſeem to indicate an inferiority of intellect and power in the natives. For neither in China, nor exterior India, have ſuch foreign conqueſts been atchieved; and in this reſpect the Hindoos ſeem rather to approach the rude tribes of Africa and America, or at moſt the ſlight civilization of Mexico or Peru, than the union, ſpirit, and diſcipline, to be found in ſtates truly civiliżed. Chief Cities and Towns.

Having thus briefly mentioned the Britiſh poſſeſſions in this quarter of Hindoſtan, and their neareſt ally, it may be proper to indicate a few other remarkable places to the ſouth of theſe poſſeſſions. Tranquebar is a noted Daniſh ſettlement in the kingdom of Tanjore, which embraces the wide Delta of the Caveri. This ſettlement was formed about 1617, and has been chiefly remarkable on account of the Lutheran miſſionaries, who reſorted hither to convert the Hindoos, and have ſometimes contributed to illuſtrate natural hiſtory. Pondicheri was the principal ſettlement of the French, founded in 1674, and before the war, 1756, was a large and beautiful city. Tranquebar.

On the weſtern coaſt, or that of Malabar, ſtands Cochin, on the northern point of a long tract of land, forming a kind of iſland, ſurrounded on the eaſt by a creek of the ſea, which receives ſeveral ſtreams. But this ſeemingly ample harbour is obſtructed by a dangerous bar. When the Portugueſe firſt viſited Hindoſtan, Cochin and the ſurrounding territory were poſſeſſed by a native raja; and the celebrated Vaſco de Gama died here, 1525. This city remained ſubject to the Portugueſe till 1660, when it was taken by the Dutch, who ſeem ſtill to be permitted to retain this ſettlement, or perhaps have reſigned it to the French. The ſurrounding creeks and marſhes of this low and unhealthy ſhore abound with fiſh and game.[2] Cochin.

[2] Weſdin, 130, gives a good account of Cochin.

CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS.

To the north of the Britiſh territories firſt occurs Goa, formerly a capital ſettlement of the Portugueſe, and a noted ſeat of their Inquiſition.

Goa. This city, once magnificent, ſtands on a ſmall iſle, in the midſt of a beautiful bay, which receives a rivulet called the Gonga, and two or three others from the Balagauts, or higheſt mountains of Sukhien, which form a grand diſtant proſpect, while the intervening ſcene is variegated with hills, woods, convents, and villas. It was ſeized by the celebrated Albuquerque, the greateſt of the Portugueſe commanders in India, A. D. 1510. It afterwards became another Malacca, another centre of Portugueſe trade.[3] The harbour is ranked among the firſt in India, and if in the hands of the Engliſh would probably reſume its former conſequence.

Poona. The other parts of the coaſt preſenting few remarkable objects, it will be proper to paſs the mountainous ridge, and firſt viſit Poona, the capital of the weſtern empire of the Marattas, but a mean defenceleſs city; the archives of the government, and in all appearance the chief ſeat of power, being at Poorunder, a fortreſs about eighteen miles to the ſouth-eaſt.

Viſiapour. Viſiapour, in the Maratta territory, alſo called Bejapour, is a conſiderable city, and was once the capital of a large kingdom of the ſame name. In the vicinity are celebrated diamond mines.

Hydrabad. Hydrabad is the metropolis of the Nizam's territory, and particularly of the celebrated kingdom or province of Golconda, but ſeems otherwiſe little remarkable. Betwixt theſe two laſt-named cities ſtands Calberga, formerly the capital of a powerful kingdom, that of the Deccan, under the Bamineah dynaſty, as already mentioned in the general view of Hindoſtan. On paſſing the Kiſtna, few places of diſtinguiſhed note occur. The regions on the great river Toombuddra, which riſes nearly in the parallel of Seringapatam, and purſues a northern courſe of about 350 B. miles till it join the Kiſtna after paſſing Canoul, have been delineated with ſuperior accuracy in Rennell's laſt map, April 1800; and it is to be wiſhed that he would publiſh a general map of Hindoſtan on a larger ſcale than that of 1788, with all the moſt recent diſcoveries.

[3] Pennant, i. 112.

ISLAND OF CEYLON.

Extent and Name.—Religion.—Population.—Manners and Cuſtoms.—Towns.—Manufactures.—Climate.—Rivers.—Mountains.—Foreſts.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Pearl Fiſhery.—Other Iſles.

EXTENT AND NAME.

THOUGH this iſland be not above a fifth part of the ſize aſcribed to it by the ſtrange exaggeration of the ancients, it ſtill approaches to that of Ireland, being generally ſuppoſed to be about 260 B. miles in length by about 150 in breadth: but in the wide continent of Aſia territory is on ſo large a ſcale, that what in Europe would conſtitute a kingdom is here ſcarcely a province. This iſle is the Taprobana, Salice, and Sieledeba of the ancients, the Serendib of the Arabians: in the Hindoo language it is called Lanca; and the people are doubtleſs of Hindoo origin. Its hiſtory is little known. The Hindoos fable that it was conquered by the almighty Rama, who conſtructed a bridge over the ſhoals and iſlands, ſtill called by his name; but the Mahometans ſtyle it Adam's Bridge; as, by another abſurd alteration, they have called the ſuppoſed print of the foot of the god Boodh, on a high mountain, by the name of Adam's Foot. In the reign of Claudius embaſſadors were ſent to Rome by a Singaleſe rajia, raja, or king, whom Pliny, miſtaking his title for his name, has called Rachia.[1] In the trifling treatiſe on the Brahmans, written by one Palladius, and tranſlated by St. Ambroſe, we are told that four kings reigned in Taprobana, of whom one was ſtyled Maharagia, or the great king. The ſucceſſion and petty wars of theſe princes would be little important. When the Portugueſe ſeized this iſland, 1506, the chief monarch was the king of Cotta; but the central province of Candea, or Kandi, afterwards appears as the leading principality. The Portugueſe retained poſſeſſion of the ſhores, (the inland parts riſing to a high table land, bounded by foreſts, and difficult paſſes,) till about 1660, when they were expelled by the Dutch, between whom and the king of Kandi a war aroſe 1759,

[1] Pliny, vi. 22.

which

Extent and Name.

which terminated 1766, by the ſubmiſſion of the latter, who ſurrendered all the coaſts, and agreed to deliver yearly a quantity of cinnamon at a low rate.[2] From the ſordid domination of the Dutch it has recently paſſed under the more liberal banner of Britiſh power; and it is to be hoped that our ingenious countrymen will furniſh us with more preciſe accounts of the formerly Dutch poſſeſſions in general, which mercantile jealouſy concealed in profound obſcurity.

Religion.

The religion of Ceylon is the ancient worſhip of Boodh, whoſe images appear with ſhort and criſped hair, becauſe it is fabled that he cut it with a golden ſword, which produced that effect.[3] In the Aſiatic Reſearches may be found prints of ſome antiquities and idols, diſcovered on the ſouthern and weſtern coaſts of Ceylon, among which the image of Boodh is predominant; and an old king called Coutta Raja is ſculptured in granite, and celebrated in the Singaleſe traditions. The worſhip of Boodh is ſuppoſed to have originated in Ceylon; and thence to have ſpread to ancient Hindoſtan, to exterior India, Tibet, and even to China and Japan. Such are the traditions in Siam, Pegu, &c. which ſuppoſe that Boodh, probably a kind of Confucius or deified philoſopher, flouriſhed about 540 years before the Chriſtian æra; and as the Boodhis in general ſhew a prodigious ſuperiority of good ſenſe to the viſionary Bramins, their accounts deſerve more credit than the idle dreams and millionary chronology of the Pundits. Others however ſuppoſe that the worſhip of Boodh originated in exterior India.* However this be, there ſeems no ground to infer that the puerile mythology of the Hindoos was derived from Egypt, though the ſimilarity of the countries in reſpect to annual inundations, and ſeveral natural products, occaſioned a faint reſemblance in ſome reſpects, merely becauſe human fears and wiſhes are the ſame in ſimilar ſituations. The great number and variety of heads and arms of the Hindoo idols ſeem unrivalled by the more ſober Egyptians, who had very different modes of expreſſing

[2] Weſdin, 429. [3] Aſ Reſ vi. 453.

* There are three chief diſtinctions between the prieſts of Boodh and the Bramins; the former may lay down the prieſthood; they eat fleſh, but will not kill the animal; and they form no caſt nor tribe, but are from the maſs of the people.

power,

power, or beauty: and reaſon will find more cauſe to diſcriminate, than fancy to aſſimilate, the two ſyſtems. Religion.

There does not yet appear to be any authentic intelligence concerning the population of Ceylon; but as it ſeems to remain almoſt in a ſtate of nature the inhabitants cannot be inferred to be numerous. The hundreds of cities mentioned by ancient writers are now eſteemed completely fabulous; nor does there ſeem to be one place deſerving the name of a city, mentioned either in ancient or modern record. This iſland is only important in a commercial view, from its celebrated products of cinnamon and gems. The harbour of Trincomali, on the eaſt, is to us of great conſequence, becauſe there is none on the eaſtern coaſt of Hindoſtan: and it has even been ſuggeſted that in caſe any revolution, to which all human affairs are ſubject, ſhould expel us from the continent of Hindoſtan, this iſland might afford an extenſive and grand aſylum, where the Britiſh name and commerce might be perpetuated. Population.

The natives of Ceylon, called Singaleſe, either from a native or Portugueſe term, are not ſo black as thoſe of Malabar, and have few manners and cuſtoms diſtinct from other Hindoos. It is ſaid that ſeveral brothers may have one wife in common, as in Tibet; but the polygamy of males is alſo allowed.[3] In general chaſtity is little eſteemed in the oriental countries; and the morality of many nations is ſo lax in this reſpect that the intercourſe of the ſexes is conſidered as far more indifferent than the uſe of certain foods. The language is rather peculiar; but ſome of the natives underſtand both the Tamulic and that of Malabar. Manners and Cuſtoms.

The native town Kandi, in the centre of the iſle, ſeems to be of ſmall ſize and conſequence, and probably only diſtinguiſhed by a paliſade and a few temples.[4] It was taken by the Portugueſe in 1590; but no recent traveller appears to have viſited this deep receſs of ſovereign power. Towns. Kandi.

The chief town of the Portugueſe, Dutch, and Engliſh poſſeſſions, is Colombo, a handſome place, and well fortified; the reſidence of the Colombo.

[3] Weſdin, 435.

[4] Mandelſlo, 279, who gives a liſt of the other towns.

Towns. governor is elegant, but only conſiſts of one floor with a balcony to receive the cool air[5]. Ceylon being expoſed on all ſides to the ſea breezes the climate is not ſo hot as that of Hindoſtan; far leſs peſtiferous, like the marſhy exhalations of Batavia. At Colombo there is a printing preſs, where the Dutch publiſhed religious books in the Tamulic, Malabar, and Singaleſe languages. The name of Colombo ſeems indigenous, as well as that of Nigombo, a fortreſs a few miles to the N. of this capital.

The northern parts of Ceylon are chiefly left to the natives, but the town of Jafnapatam, or Jafna, was a Dutch ſettlement in a detached iſle. The grand pearl fiſhery is conducted in the gulf of Manar, near Condatchey, a miſerable place in a ſandy diſtrict, to which water is brought from Aripoo, a village four miles to the ſouth: the ſhoals near Rama's bridge ſupply inexhauſtible ſtores of this valued production.[6]

Trincomali. On purſuing the ſhore towards the eaſt it is moſtly guarded by ſand-banks, or rocks; but the noble harbour of Trincomali opens at the mouth of the Mowil Ganga, the Ganges of Ptolemy's large map of Taprobana; and was defended by a ſtrong fortreſs. Batacola is an inferior haven, on the ſame ſide of the iſland.

But the ſouthern ſide of Ceylon has been chiefly viſited, abounding
Matura. with gems and other rich productions. Matura was a Dutch factory near the moſt ſouthern promontory called Dondra, where excellent kinds of cinnamon were collected; and varieties of precious ſtones abound in the vicinity.[7] Not far to the W. of Matura is Gale, or Galle, near a point ſo called, a handſome town ſtrongly fortified, on the projecting angle of a rock.[8]

Manufactures. There is little mention of any manufactures conducted in this iſland; but the natives ſeem not unſkilled in the common works in gold and iron. The Dutch ſhips uſed to ſail from Galle, laden with cinnamon, pepper, and other ſpices; nor muſt pearls and precious ſtones be forgotten among the articles of export. The colombo wood, a bitter in

[5] Thunberg, iv. 175. [6] Aſ. Reſ. v. 397.
[7] Thunberg, iv. 195, 231. [8] Ib. 194.

recent uſe, receives its name from the capital; but its native country or diſtrict ſeems ſtill unknown. MANUFACTURES.

The climate and ſeaſons correſpond in ſome degree with the adjacent continent; yet the expoſure on all ſides to the ſea renders the air more cool and ſalubrious. The general aſpect of the country ſomewhat reſembles that of ſouthern Hindoſtan; a high table land, in the centre, being ſurrounded with low ſhores, about ſix or eight leagues in breadth. High mountains, prodigious foreſts, full of aromatic trees and plants, and many pleaſant rivers and ſtreams diverſify this country, which by the Hindoos is eſteemed a ſecond paradiſe. The vales are of a rich fat ſoil; and, when cleared, amazingly fertile in rice, and other uſeful vegetables. Climate.

There are five conſiderable rivers deſcribed by Ptolemy; of which the chief is the Mowil Ganga, on which ſtood Maagramum, the capital in his time, and modern Kandi ſtands on the ſame ſtream, one of the royal palaces being on an iſle in that river, where the monarch keeps a treaſure of gems; and his officers, like thoſe of exterior India, are decorated with ſlight chains of gold. Rivers.

The Phaſis of Ptolemy running N. is perhaps the ſtream which paſſes to the N. W. by Ackpol. His weſtern ſtream of Soana is perhaps that which enters the ſea in that direction, near the centre of the iſle. The Azanus S. W. ſeems that near the point of Galle; while his Baracus E. is the Barokan.

The chain, or chains of mountains run N. and S. the ſouthern part being called Malea by the Greek geographer; a mere native term for a mountain, as Ganga for a river. The northern part is by Ptolemy called Galibe. Theſe mountains ſeem granitic; and are peculiarly rich in precious ſtones imbedded in primitive quartz. What the Mahometans have termed Adam's Peak is eſteemed the higheſt; and is in Sanſcret called Salmala, Boodh being fabled to have aſcended from it to heaven. Mountains.

The foreſts are numerous and large, the haunts of innumerable elephants, like the Gauts of ſouthern Hindoſtan. An ample account Foreſts.

Forests. of the botany of this iſland is given by the ſkilful Thunberg; one of the moſt peculiar and precious trees is that producing the beſt cinnamon, about the thickneſs of ſtout paper, of a browniſh yellow, and a flavour inclining to ſweetneſs.

Zoology. The elephants of Ceylon are ſuppoſed only to yield in beauty to thoſe of Siam, and chiefly frequent the ſouthern part of the iſland. Buffaloes are alſo found in a wild ſtate, while the tame are uſed in rural œconomy. The wild boars are numerous and extremely fierce; nor is the tiger unknown, but probably not equal in ſize to thoſe of Bengal. Bears, chacals, and many tribes of deer and monkies, are alſo natives of Ceylon. The alligator, frequent in the Hindoo rivers, here ſometimes reaches the length of eighteen feet. Among a vaſt variety of elegant birds, the peacock, that rich ornament of the Hindoo foreſts, ſwarms in this beautiful iſland. For more ample information the ingenious labours of Pennant may be conſulted.[9]

Mineralogy. Ceylon, opulent in every department of natural hiſtory, preſents many minerals of uncommon beauty. Not to mention iron, gold, plumbago, &c., Thunberg has given a liſt of the precious ſtones, among which are the genuine ruby, ſapphire, and topaz; nor are garnets or even rock cryſtals neglected by the Singaleſe. The fineſt rock cryſtal is that of a violet colour, called amethyſt, a trivial ſtone, but when extremely pure not a little valued from the ſingularity of the tint. The water ſapphire is only a harder kind of the colourleſs cryſtal: the yellow and brown are the Scotiſh Cairngorm ſtones, here cut for buttons, for which purpoſe black ſchorl is alſo uſed on mourning apparel. The jacint is of a yellowiſh brown, ſomewhat reſembling the cinnamon ſtone; but the laſt is ſometimes of a bright orange. The tourmalins, or tranſparent ſchorls, are alſo numerous in Ceylon; but ſome are falſely ſo called, as the red and blue, which are quartz; the green are chryſolite; while the yellow and white, or what are called Mutureſe diamonds, are pale topazes. Thunberg informs us that the Hindoo term Tourmalin is thus applied to ſtones of different deſcriptions; but he does not deſcribe the genuine tourmalin of mineralogiſts,

[9] View of Hindoſtan, vol. i.

which

which in Ceylon is generally dark brown or yellowiſh, while thoſe of other colours come from Brazil and Tyrol. The Peridot of the French, which is a bright green ſtone of rather a ſoft nature, is found in Arabia, Perſia, and India; but it is aſſerted that Ceylon produces the genuine emerald, which is eſteemed peculiar to Peru, while the emerald of the ancients is probably the peridot. That hard ſpar, called Corundon, uſed by the Singaleſe in poliſhing their precious ſtones, is found in the Gauts near Cape Comorin. The cat's eye, a kind of giraſol, ſeems peculiar to Ceylon, as the noble or genuine opal is to Hungary. Mineralogy.

Nor muſt the pearl fiſhery be forgotten which commonly begins on the N. W. ſhore, about the middle of February and continues till about the middle of April, when the S. W. monſoon commences.[10] The village of Condatchey is then crowded with a mixture of thouſands of people, of different colours, countries, caſts, and occupations; with numerous tents, and huts, and bazars, or ſhops; while the ſea preſents many boats haſtening to the banks, or returning with the expected riches. The divers are chiefly chriſtians, or moſlems, who deſcend from five to ten fathoms, and remain under water about two minutes, each bringing up about a hundred oyſters in his net. The ſpecies is minutely deſcribed in the paper quoted, which ſeems to confute the opinion of M. De St. Fond that pearls are produced by the perforation of ſome inſect. Theſe precious pearls are on the contrary always formed like the coats of an onion, around a grain of ſand, or ſome other extraneous particle, which ſerves as a nucleus, the animal covering it with glutinous matter to prevent diſagreeable friction; and even thoſe formed in the ſhell ſeem produced by ſimilar exertion to cover ſome rough part, but theſe are darker and bluer than genuine pearls. The yellow, or gold-coloured pearl is moſt eſteemed by the natives; and ſome are of a bright red luſtre: but the dull grey, or blackiſh are of no value. Pearl Fiſhery.

There are no other iſles of any conſequence near the coaſts of Hindoſtan. Thoſe called Lacadives and Maldives ſcarcely merit a particular deſcription, in a work of this general nature, which ought only to embrace the moſt intereſting topics: and the Andaman and Nicobar Other Iſles.

[10] Aſ. Reſ. v. 394.

Other Isles. iſles properly belong to exterior India, where a ſhort account of them may be found, after the peninſula of Malacca, to which coaſt they are the moſt approximated. It may here ſuffice to obſerve that in the Hindoo language *dive* implies an iſle; and Ptolemy computes thoſe

Maldives. which mariners ſaw before they reached Ceylon, that is the Maldives, at more than thirteen hundred. They form as it were an oblong incloſure of ſmall low regular iſles, around a clear ſpace of ſea, with very ſhallow water between each. They are governed by a chief called Atoll, and the trade is in cowrie ſhells, with cocoa nuts and fiſh." The

Lacadives. language is Singaleſe; and there are ſome Mahometans. The Lacadive iſlands form a more extended groupe, though only thirty in number. They alſo trade in cocoa nuts, and fiſh; and ambergris is often found floating in the vicinity.

" Pennant, i. 51.

PERSIA.
TURKEY IN ASIA
ARABIA
KHARISM
GREAT BUCHARIA
CANDAHAR
SEGISTAN
KERMAN
MAZENDRAN
IRAK AJEMI
KHOSISTAN
FARS
LARISTAN
COMIS
CORASAN
Caspian Sea
Persian Gulf
Kara Kum
Great Salt Desert
Desert
Sea of Herkan
Sea of Derrah
Terku
Derbend
Tiflis
Erivan
Mt. Ararat
Nagjowan
Tebriz
Selmas
Miana
Sultanie
Casbin
Tahran
Hamadan
Sava
Kom
Kashan
Ispahan
Guerdes
Yezd
Kerman
Meshid
Naisebour
Jam
Herat
Balk
Merual Rud
Meru Shagehan
Babacamber Lake
Amol
Forawer
Abou Abbas
Chabushan
Ashor
Durun
Abiscon
Jorjan
Shasuman
Dagman
Bistam
Dest-Beyad
Tejen River
Hawerd
Kelat
Nesa
Meiab
Buela
Dandemakin
Sarkas
Karinan
Badgis
Susa
Tous
Ferhad
Zauzan
Jowrone
Derreonah
Ashkara
Charsoorah
Ghelman
Ghiznee
Candahar
Bamian
Cabul
Hindoo Koh M.
Zarang
Nakshua
Pusheng
Kelveh
Kandabil
Lahsa
Katif
Bussora
Ahwaz
Tostar
Shuster
Dizful
Ragian
Istakar
Firouzabad
Jerroun
Niris
Shiraz
Rik
Fesa
Darabgherd
Tarem
Lar
Kismis
Kishm
Bunder Abassi
Gombaroon
Ormus
Mina
Nachelo
Kunk
Suat
Kidge
Ermajil
Mend
Daren
Makran
Kermshir
Pariz
Girest
Fohraj
Keih
Nehenk River
Makshid R.
Arabo River
Sinde or Indus R.
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Kur R.
Aras R.
Kizil Ozan
Jaserun R.
Kerkah R.
Karasu R.
Dizful R.
Shapour R.
Bendemir R.
Heermund R.
Helmund R.
Furrah
Zela
Kain
Tabaskili
Karte
Shemeshe
Saadut
Hirabed
Seagan
Gustan
Kaedem
Meijan
Semenjan
Nudem
Deroan
Jasad
Benjevai
Maknenabad
Esfendjai
Kast
Auon
Ozaer
Vaihend Lake
Vaihend R.
Argehange
Salmarend
Sumandreg M.
Houdmend R.
Bergaspe
Sherab
Bost
Dulkook
Karpin
Herdjan
Desaden
Karcara
Hindmend R.
Durat
Sertjiska
Corra
Ghurmow
Ghimmock
Buckul
Chaharsiab
Tirmed
Tirpul
Ghaznee
Mt. of Gaur
Herat
Tour
Baghilan
Tirin
Kenit
Badkis
Tirmed
Teon
Kain
Elizar
Zela
Farra

PERSIA.

CHAPTER I.

Historical Geography.

Diviſions.—Name.—Extent.—Population.—Progreſſive Geography.—Provinces.—Hiſtorical Epochs.—Ancient Monuments.—Modern Hiſtory.—Eaſtern Perſia.

THE ancient and powerful monarchy of Perſia has, during the greater part of laſt century, been in a moſt diſtracted and divided condition; and the inhabitants, formerly renowned for wiſdom and benignity, have been degraded, by civil diſcord, and mutual enmity and diſtruſt, into a temporary debaſement, both moral and political. This great empire ſeems at length, in ſome degree, to have ſettled into two diviſions, the Eaſtern and the Weſtern; while the provinces near the Caſpian, ſecured by mountains and faſtneſſes, have aſſerted a kind of independance. Theſe circumſtances are unfavourable to a juſt and exact delineation of the preſent ſtate of the country; but the chief limits, and many of the moſt important geographical topics, have been inviolably fixed by the hand of nature; and the following deſcription ſhall embrace modern Perſia in general, as it was in the time of Chardin, combined with the moſt recent and authentic information. Diviſions.

The name of Perſia ſpread from the province of *Pars* or *Fars* throughout this mighty empire, in like manner as, among other inſtances, the appellation of England originated from a ſmall tribe. This name has, however, been little known to the natives, who, in ancient and modern times, have termed their country *Iran;* under which denomination Name.

Name. nomination were included all the wide regions to the S. and W. of the river Oxus, or Gihon, the Amu of the Ruſſians and Tatars; while the countries ſubject to Perſia beyond that celebrated river, were, in ancient times, ſtyled *Aniran*. Hence the inſcriptions on the ancient Perſian coins recently interpreted by two able orientaliſts, Sacy and Sir William Cuſeley, bear "the worſhipper of Ormuzd, the excellent Ardeſhir, king of the kings of Iran and Aniran, celeſtially deſcended from the go[illegible]." Sacy ſuppoſes that the name *Aniran* ſimply implies the negative of Iran, or the various ſubject countries not contained within its limits; and probably what, in more modern times, has been ſtyled *Touran*, which in a wide acceptation may extend to Tatary, or the weſtern part of central Aſia, but in a more limited ſenſe means Great and Little Bucharia.

Extent. From the mountains and deſarts which, with the river Araba, conſtitute the eaſtern frontier towards Hindoſtan, Perſia extends more than 1200 miles in length, to the weſtern mountains of Elwend, and other limits of Aſiatic Turkey. From ſouth to north, from the deſerts on the Indian ſea, in all ages left to the Ichthyophagi, or wild tribes of Arabs who live on fiſh, to the other deſarts near the ſea of Aral are about 1000 B. miles.

Population. The original population of the mountainous country of Perſia appears to have been indigenous, that is no preceding nation can be traced; and in the opinion of all the moſt learned and ſkilful enquirers, from Scaliger and Lipſius down to Sir William Jones, this nation is Scythic, or Gothic, and the very ſource and fountain of all the celebrated Scythian nations. While the ſouthern Scythians of Iran gradually became a ſettled and civilized people, the barbarous northern tribes ſpread around the Caſpian and Euxine ſeas; and beſides the powerful ſettlements of the Getæ and Maſſagetæ, the Gog and Magog of oriental authors, and others on the north and eaſt of the great ridge of mountains called Imaus, or Belur Tag, they detached victorious colonies into the greater part of Europe many centuries before the chriſtian æra.[1]

[1] See the Author's Diſſertation on the Scythians, or Goths, in his Enquiry into the Hiſtory of Scotland, two vols. 8vo.

The

Population.

The ancient Medes and Parthians, in the north of Perſia, appear however to have been of Sarmatic, or Slavonic origin, and to have ſpread from their native regions on the Volga, towards the Caucaſian mountains, along which ridge they paſſed to the ſouth of the Caſpian, the ancient ſite of Media and Parthiene. The grand chain of Caucaſus forms a kind of central point of immigration and emigration from the E. and W. whence the great variety of nations and languages there are traced even in modern times. The late very learned and excellent Sir William Jones, who did honour to his country and century, has repeatedly expreſſed his opinion that while the Parſi and Zend, or proper and peculiar Perſian language, is of the ſame origin with the Gothic, Greek, and Latin; the Pehlavi is Aſſyrian, or Chaldaic. This teſtimony rather militates againſt that of many illuſtrious claſſical authors; as we ſhould expect the Pehlavi, or in other words any ſecond grand dialect in this country, to have been Slavonic; but from the inſcriptions on the coins of a dynaſty, confeſſedly and peculiarly Perſian, which are Pehlavic, it appears that this was merely a more poliſhed dialect, adopted from their weſtern neighbours of Syria; who, from extenſive commerce and other advantages, had become more opulent, intelligent, and civilized. This difference between the written language and the colloquial is even now common in many oriental countries; as for inſtance the Birman empire and Siam: and oriental manners have been perpetually the ſame. It is probable that the Slavonic language of the Parthians and Medes, though ſometimes ſuperior and ruling tribes, was ſoon loſt, as uſual, in that of the greater number, and is little to be diſtinguiſhed from that of the Perſian natives. In modern times the Arabs and the Turcomans have ruled in Perſia, and the Afgans, probably a Caucaſian tribe, in Hindoſtan, without effecting any change in the native language.

Progreſſive Geography.

The conteſts of ancient Perſia, with Greece and the Greek colonies eſtabliſhed in Aſia Minor, then within the wide limits of the Perſian empire, have rendered the ancient geography of this country not a little luminous. Herodotus, the father of hiſtory, was born at Halicarnaſſus, one of theſe colonies; and his account of the twenty Satrapies, or great provinces of the Perſian empire, in the reign of Darius

Progressive Geography.

Hyſtaſpes, or Ghuſhtaſp, has been ably illuſtrated in a late work of Major Rennell. The preſent deſign however only embraces the modern provinces, and limits; and the former may be thus arranged, proceeding from the W. towards the N. E. after remarking that the limits of the ancient and modern provinces often coincide, as they conſiſt of rivers and ranges of mountains.

Provinces.

1. Georgia, or more properly Gurguſtan, in which may be included Daghiſtan and Shirvan. Theſe may be conſidered as conſtituting the Albania of the ancients; a name applied in different quarters to mountainous regions. The ancient Iberia to the W. is now chiefly the Imeritia of European Turkey, on the other ſide of a branch of the Caucaſus.

2. Erivan: a large portion of ancient Armenia, between the river Kur, or Cyrus on the north, and the Aras, or Araxes on the ſouth.

3. Aderbijan including Mogan, the Atropatena of the ancients.

4. Ghilan to the eaſt of the laſt on the Caſpian ſea, and ſynonymous with the ancient Gela.

5. To cloſe the liſt of countries on the Caſpian, Mazendran appears encircled on the ſouth by a lofty branch of the Caucaſian chain, the ſeat of the Mardi of antiquity; to the E. of which was the noted province of Hyrcania, now Corcan and Dahiſtan.

6. Returning to the W. frontier there occurs Irac Ajemi, chiefly correſponding with the ancient Ecbatana. In the ſouth of this province is Iſpahan, the modern capital of Perſia.

7. Choſiſtan extending to the river Tigris; but the capital Buſſora, or Baſra, after a recent vain attempt of the Arabs, remains ſubject to the Turks. This province correſponds with the ancient Suſiana.*

8. The celebrated province of Fars, Perſis, or Perſia proper, ſurrounded with mountains on the N. the W. the S: and on the E. ſeparated by a deſert from Kerman. Fars contains the beautiful city of Shiraz, with Iſtakar and the ruins of Perſepolis.

9. Kerman, the ancient Carmania.

* But the name is antiquated. Niebuhr Deſcr. de l' Arab. 277. Shuſter, or Toſtar, is now the name of a large province. Loriſtan is in Shuſter. To the weſt is the country of Haviſa, the Ahwaz of D'Anville. The tribe *Kiab* is on the S. of Haviſa. Ib.

10. Lariſtan,

10. Lariſtan, a ſmall province on the Perſian Gulf to the S. E. of Fars, of which ſome regard it as a part; nor does the ſubdiviſion ſeem to be known in ancient times, though the long ridge of mountains on the S. of Fars, and generally about 60 B. miles from the Perſian Gulf, ſeem here naturally to indicate a maritime province; which, if the ancient Perſians had been addicted to commerce, would have been the ſeat of great wealth, by intercourſe with Arabia, Africa, and India. But this high ſpirited nation of horſemen and warriors was totally averſe from maritime enterprize, either of war or trade, whether from a contempt of the Arabian fiſh-eaters on their coaſt; or more probably from particular precepts of Zerduſt or Zoroaſter, the founder of their religion, as Hyde has explained, which rendered a maritime life incompatible with the practice of their faith. In modern times Ormus and Buſſora ſhew that the Perſian Gulf is adapted to extenſive commerce, which was indeed carried on here in the reigns of the Arabian chalifs. Mr. Franklin, who in 1786 paſſed from Abu Shehar, or Buſheer, to Shiraz, found the mountains in this ſouthern part extremely precipitous, and the ſummits covered with ſnow in the end of March; a circumſtance unexpected in ſouthern Perſia, and in a latitude nearer the line than Cairo. PROVINCES.

11. To the E. of Kerman is the large province of Mekran, which extends to the Indian deſerts, and is the ancient Gadruſtan or Gedroſia. This province has always been unfertile, and full of deſerts; and claſſical geography here preſents only one mean town called Pura, probably Borjian on the moſt W. frontier. The extenſive ſea coaſt on the Indian ocean, far from being the ſeat of commerce, ſcarcely preſents one harbour, being almoſt an uniform line of ſterility, inhabited by Arabs, like moſt of the ſouthern coaſts of Perſia, which are divided by mountains and deſerts from the fertile and cultivated land.

12. Segiſtan, another wide frontier province towards India, was chiefly the Arachoſia and Saranga of antiquity; while the province of Paropamiſus in the N. E. encroached on Candahar, and the modern limits of Hindoſtan.

13. The grand and terminating diviſion of modern Perſia in the N. E. is Coraſan, bounded by the Gihon or Oxus on the N. E. and on the S.

Provinces. by the lake of Zeré, or Zurra, the grand Aria Palus of antiquity. The claſſical provinces comprized within Coraſan are in the N. Margiana and in the S. Aria.

Beſides theſe provinces, and excluſive of Aſiatic Turkey on the W. the ancient Perſian empire compriſed Bactriana or Balk, which may be termed a wide and well watered kingdom of between 300 and 400 B. miles ſquare; and on the other ſide of the Oxus, Sogdiana, or the country on the river Sogd, which paſſes by modern Samarcand.* Nay the fifteenth ſatrapy of Herodotus compriſes the Sacæ and Caſpii, probably the country of Shaſh, and ſome other tribes nearer the Caſpian ſea, for it would be bold to comprize in the Perſian domains any part of Scythia beyond the Imaus, or in other words, of the country of the Seres; for Ptolemy's exterior Scythia is a mere ſtrip, and probably only repreſents the hills and foreſts on the E. ſide of the Belur Tag. This province of the Sacæ and Caſpii adjoined on the W. to Coraſmia, which belonged to the ſixteenth ſatrapy, and is now the deſert ſpace of Khariſm, with the ſmall territory of Khiva.

The countries laſt mentioned form ſo conſiderable a part of what is called Independent Tatary, and have in all ages been ſo intimately connected with Perſian hiſtory, that ſome account of them ſhall be annexed to this article; which, joined with that in the Chineſe empire, will complete the deſcription of the countries between the dominions of that great ſtate and thoſe of Ruſſia and Perſia, ſo far as the very imperfect materials will allow.

The moſt recent diviſion of Perſia into two kingdoms, and ſome ſmall independencies, can be weighed with greater accuracy after a ſhort view of its modern hiſtory, which will follow the hiſtorical epochs and antiquities. But it muſt not be omitted that the progreſſive geography of this celebrated country may be traced through Strabo, Pliny, the hiſtorians of Alexander, and other claſſical ſources; and afterwards through the Arabian authors Ebn Haukal, Edriſi, Abulfeda, &c. &c. to the modern labours of Chardin, and other intelligent travellers.

* There is either a prodigious error in Ptolemy, or his Maracanda is in the weſt of the country of Balk, perhaps the modern Marabad. The Maracanda of Arrian is clearly Samarcand.

The

The chief hiſtorical epochs of the Perſian empire may be arranged in the following order. Historical Epochs.

1. The Scythians, or barbarous inhabitants of Perſia, according to the account of Juſtin conquered a great part of Aſia, and attacked Egypt about 1500 years before the reign of Ninus the founder of the Aſſyrian monarchy; that is ſo far as the faint light of chronology can pretend to determine ſuch remote events, about 3660 years before the Chriſtian æra. The Egyptians, a people of Aſſyrian extract, as the Coptic language ſeems to evince, were from ſuperior local advantages civilized at a more early period; and their genuine chronology ſeems to begin about 4000 years before Chriſt. The venerable hiſtorical records contained in the Scriptures atteſt the early civilization and ancient polity of the Egyptians; but as the Aſſyrians ſpread far to the eaſt of Judea, they ſeem to be ſilent concerning the Perſians, except a ſatrap or two be implied. The firſt ſeat of the Perſian monarchy was probably in the N. E. on the river Oxus; while the Aſſyrians poſſeſſed the Euphrates and the Tigris, and the S. W. of Perſia. There is no evidence whatever, from records, remains of antiquity, or any probable induction, that this planet has been inhabited above ſix or ſeven thouſand years. The invention and progreſs of the arts, the mythologies and chronologies of all nations, except the Hindoos, indicate this term as the utmoſt limit; before which, if men had exiſted, indelible traces of them muſt have appeared, whereas hiſtory can account for every relic that is found. For the great antiquity of the earth there are many evidences; but none for the antiquity of man.

The hiſtory of the Aſſyrian empire begins with Ninus about 2160 years before Chriſt, who is ſaid to have formed an alliance with the king of Arabia, and, in conjunction with him, to have ſubdued all Aſia, except India and Bactriana; that is, according to the ancient knowledge, he ſubdued Aſia Minor and the weſt of Perſia.

2. Zoroaſter king of Bactriana is ſaid to have been contemporary with Ninus, and to have invented magic; that is, he was a wiſe man, who could produce uncommon effects by common cauſes. But the hiſtory of this Perſian lawgiver is loſt in remote antiquity. The city of Babylon, not far to the S. of Bagdad, being the capital of Aſſyrian

Historical Epochs.

power, it is likely that it extended over great of weſtern Perſia: nor is it improbable that what is now called Arabia Deſerta was, at ſo remote a period, a productive country. Nineveh, ſaid to have been founded by Ninus, appears to have ſtood oppoſite to Moſul, about 300 B. miles to the north of Babylon; but the hiſtory of the kingdoms denominated from theſe two cities is foreign to the preſent purpoſe.

3. Cyrus founds what is called the Perſian empire, 557 years before the Chriſtian æra, and ſoon after takes Babylon. This great event may be ſaid only to have diſcloſed the Perſians to the civilized nations of the weſt, for the native Perſian hiſtories aſcend to Kayumarras, great grandſon of Noah, and the ancient traditions chiefly refer to wars againſt Touran and India, which indicates the primitive eaſtern poſition of the people. But theſe are mingled with improbable fables concerning the foundation of ſome cities in the weſt, as Shiraz, Perſepolis, &c. while it is impoſſible, conſidering the proximity of the Aſſyrian power, that theſe cities could have been founded till after Cyrus led the Perſians from the N. and the E. to the S. W.

4. The overthrow of the firſt Perſian empire by Alexander, B C. 328, followed by the Greek monarchs of Syria, and the Grecian kingdom of Bactriana; of which laſt an intereſting hiſtory has been compiled by the learned Bayer. It commenced about 248 years before Chriſt, and contained ſeveral ſatrapies, among which was Sogdiana. The kings were a firſt and ſecond Theodotus, who were followed by the uſurper Euthydemus, and Menander, in whoſe reign, or that of his ſucceſſor Eucratides, the Greeks under Demetrius are ſaid to have ſubdued a great part of India; and Apollodorus, the Bactrian hiſtorian, aſſerts that Eucratides poſſeſſed one thouſand cities. He was ſucceeded by his ſon, who ſeems to have been of the ſame name; and a coin of one of theſe princes has been publiſhed by our learned author, who advances many arguments to prove that the Greeks of Bactriana imparted the firſt lineaments of ſcience to the Hindoos.

5. The Parthian empire, which likewiſe began about 248 years B. C. This was a mere revival of the Perſian empire under a new name.

6. Ardſhur, or Artaxerxes, about the year 220 of the Chriſtian æra, reſtores the Perſian line of kings; this dynaſty being called Saſſanides:

and the Greek legends of the Parthian coins are followed by Pehlavic, recently explained by Sacy and Ouſeley. Historical Epochs.

7. The conqueſt of Perſia by the Mahometans, A. D. 636. As the poſition of the ſtate often determines its deſtiny, this Arabian empire may be aſſimilated with the Aſſyrian of antiquity. The native kingdom was revived in Coraſan, A. D. 820; and after ſeveral revolutions reſumed its former ſituation.

8. The acceſſion of the houſe of Bouiah, A. D. 934.

9. That of the houſe of Sefi or Sofi, A. D. 1501, whence the title of Soſis of Perſia; for it is unneceſſary here to repeat the conqueſts of Zingis and Timur, and the ſubſequent diviſions and revolutions.

10. The reign of Shah Abas, ſurnamed the Great, A. D. 1586.

11. The brief conqueſt by the Afgans, 1722; and conſequent extinction of the houſe of Sefi, and elevation of Nadir, ſurnamed Thamas Kouli Khan, A. D. 1736. This ferocious chief was born in Coraſan; and after a reign of eleven years was ſlain 20th June, 1747, near the city of Meſhid, in the ſame country.

Some account of the modern hiſtory and ſtate of Perſia ſhall be given, after a very brief view of the ancient monuments. Of theſe the ruins of Perſepolis are the moſt celebrated and remarkable; and have been deſcribed by many travellers, from Chardin to Niebuhr and Franklin. They are ſituated at the bottom of a mountain, fronting S. W. about forty miles to the north of Shiraz. Mr. Franklin's route from Shiraz to the ruins was by the village of Zarkan, eight furſengs, thence to the river Bund Ameer, which Mr. Niebuhr ſuppoſes to be the ancient Araxes, and to the ruins, the laſt ſtage being five furſengs.* They command a view of the extenſive plain of Merdaſht, and the mountain of Rehumut encircles them, in the form of an amphitheatre: the nature of theſe ruins may be ſeen in the numerous plates which have been publiſhed; and it would be an idle attempt to deſcribe in few words the grand portals, halls, and columns, and numerous relievos and devices. There are many inſcriptions in a character not yet explained; Ancient Monuments.

* He computes the furſeng at four Engliſh miles, but it ſeems little to exceed three; ſtill Iſtakar is placed in the maps too near to Shiraz, and too far from the mountains cloſe to which it lies.

but

Ancient Monuments.

but which Niebuhr ſeems to have repreſented with the greateſt accuracy. The letters ſomewhat reſemble nails, diſpoſed in various directions, in which ſingularity they approach to what are called the Helſing runes of Scandinavia; but the form and diſpoſition ſeem more complex, and perhaps a clue might ariſe from comparing the Uchen character of Tibet. Behind the ruin to the north there is a curious apartment cut out in the rock; and a ſubterranean paſſage, which ſeems to extend a conſiderable way. The front of the palace is 600 paces N. to S., and 390 E. to W., and the mountain behind has been deeply ſmoothed, to make way for the foundation. About three miles and a half to the N. E. of theſe ruins is the tomb of Ruſtan, the ancient Perſian hero.

Several ſmall edifices and caverns, of ſimilar architecture, are found in various parts of Perſia, all which undoubtedly preceded the Mahometan conqueſt, but it is difficult to aſcertain their preciſe æra. It is however generally ſuppoſed that they belong to the firſt race of Perſian kings, ſucceſſors of Cyrus, for the characters do not reſemble thoſe on the coins of the Saſſanidæ, and the Parthian monarchs ſeem to have employed Greek artiſts. The bricks recently brought to England and France from the ruins of ancient Babylon are impreſſed with inſcriptions in the ſame character with the Perſepolitan; and as there is no ancient evidence that the Perſians erected any edifices at Babylon, there ſeems reaſon to conclude that theſe letters are of Aſſyrian origin, and imported into Perſia with other features of early civilization. But the religious worſhip ſeems in all ages to have been wholly different, the Perſians worſhipping fire as a pure ſymbol of the divinity, and entertaining a rooted averſion to the numerous idols of their weſtern neighbours; and in the deſtruction of the Egyptian temples and idols by Cambyſes, there is no doubt that religious zeal was a great motive.

In many parts of Perſia there muſt remain ſeveral curious monuments of antiquity, which might well excite the curioſity of the learned traveller to inveſtigate this intereſting country. The deſign of the preſent work rather requires ſome information concerning the modern ſtate of this once powerful monarchy, which ſhall be chiefly derived from Mr. Franklin's view of the tranſactions in Perſia from the death of Nadir Shah, 1747, to 1788; combined with the accounts of Gmelin, who

who by command of the empreſs of Ruſſia inſpected the northern provinces and Ghilan; and thoſe of Pallas, in his laſt travels during the years 1793 and 1794. Ancient Monuments.

Nadir Shah was ſucceeded by his nephew Adil, who, after a tranſitory reign, was followed by his brother Ibrahim. Meanwhile Timur Shah reigned in Cabul, Candahar, and the Perſian provinces adjacent to Hindoſtan; and availing himſelf of the confuſion in Perſia, he beſieged Meſhid, which he took after a blockade of eight months. Modern Hiſtory.

This event was followed by ſuch anarchy and confuſion, that it ſeems impoſſible to ſettle the chronology of the infinite crimes which were committed during the conteſts of numerous chiefs, which deſolated almoſt every province from Gombroon to Ruſſia, leaving indelible marks of deſtruction throughout the kingdom, and changing even the very character of the people, whoſe prudence is degenerated into cunning, and their courage into ferocity.

At length the government of weſtern Perſia was happily ſettled for a conſiderable ſpace of time in the perſon of Kerim Khan, who however never aſſumed the title of Shah, but was contented with that of Vakeel or Regent. As he died in the thirtieth year of his reign, 1779, it muſt have commenced in 1749; but at firſt he had competitors to encounter, and the reigns of his predeceſſors ſometimes did not exceed a month or two, their number being computed at not leſs than eight.* This great and mild prince had been a favourite officer of Nadir; and at the time of that tyrant's death was in the ſouthern provinces, where he aſſumed the power at Shiraz, and was warmly ſupported by the inhabitants of that city, who had obſerved and revered his juſtice and beneficence. In reward, he embelliſhed this city and its environs with noble palaces, gardens, and moſks, improved the highways, and rebuilt the caravanſeras. His reign was eſtabliſhed by the ſword, but was afterwards unſullied by blood; and its chief peril aroſe from extreme mercy. His charity to the poor, and his attempt to reſtore the commerce of the country, are gratefully remembered by natives and Europeans. The Turkiſh emperor, and the Hindoo ſultan Hyder Ali, acknowledged Ke-

* Dr. Pallas, ii. 262. ſays that Kerim died in his eighty-third year, after an *uncontested* reign of ſixteen years only.

Modern History.

rim as ſovereign of Perſia. Yet he loſt the flower of his army before Buſſora, 1778; and though he died in his eightieth year, his fate is ſuppoſed to have been haſtened by this misfortune. The people of Shiraz embalm his memory with benedictions and tears of gratitude.

Another unhappy period of confuſion followed the death of Kerim: his relation Zikea or Saki ſeized the government, which was conteſted by another kinſman, Ali Murad. The deteſtable cruelty of Zikea led to his own deſtruction, and he was maſſacred by his troops at Yezdekaſt, about ſix days journey N. of Shiraz, on the road to Iſpahan.

Abul Futtah was then proclaimed king by the ſoldiers, and to him Ali Murad ſubmitted; but Sadick, brother of Kerim, oppoſed his nephew's elevation; for Abul Futtah was the ſon of Kerim, and had been confined by Zikea without further injury. Sadick marched from Buſſora at the head of an army, dethroned the young monarch, and after depriving him of his ſight, ordered him into ſtrict confinement.

Ali Murad, then at Iſpahan, rebelled againſt this uſurper, and with an army of twelve thouſand men beſieged and took Shiraz, and put Sadick to death, with three of his children. A ſon Jaafar was appointed by the new king governor of Kom, a city or province to the N. W. of Iſpahan; for in the moſt recent Perſian geography a province often aſſumes the name of the chief city.

Ali Murad was now regarded as peaceable poſſeſſor of the Perſian throne; but an eunuch called Aga-Mamet, or Akau, had, ſince the death of Kerim, aſſumed an independant ſway in the Caſpian province of Mazendran. When advancing againſt him, Ali Murad fell from his horſe, and inſtantly expired. Jaafar having aſſumed the ſceptre, was defeated by Akau at Yezdekaſt, and retired to Shiraz.

In 1785 the governor of Kazerun rebelled againſt Jaafar, but was defeated; and in October 1787 Jaafar returned to Shiraz, from an expedition to the north, which was ineffectual. At the cloſe of Mr. Franklin's narration, Akau held poſſeſſion of the province of Mazendran,* with the cities of Tebriz and Hamadan, and even that of Iſpahan in the ſouth, ſo that his ſway might be ſaid to extend over one half of weſtern

* Mr. Franklin adds Ghilan; but from the accounts of Pallas and Gmelin this appears to be a miſtake.

Perſia,

Perſia, while Jaafar poſſeſſed Shiraz, or the province of Fars, with thoſe of Beabun, and Shuſter in the weſt, perhaps the Kiab and Toſtar of the maps, and he received tribute from Kerman and Lar or Lariſtan, and Abuſheher or Buſheer in the ſouth, and the city of Yezd in the north. The wide province of Mekran is probably, with Segiſtan, tributary to the kings of Candahar. The armies of Jaafar and Akau did not each exceed twenty thouſand men; and they were conſidered as the ſole candidates for the throne of weſtern Perſia. Modern History.

From the information of Dr. Pallas, it appears that in 1792 Akau, whom he calls Aga Mamet, again collected an army, and conquered the cities of Kaſbin and Tekheran or Tahiran; which, though at the foot of the mountains of Mazendran, ſeem to have unaccountably reſiſted his power. Having reinforced his troops with thoſe of Ali, khan of Hamſa, a prince who had aſſerted a kind of independency ſince the death of Ali Murad, he advanced againſt Jaafar, who retreated to Shiraz, where he periſhed in an inſurrection, and his ſon Lutuf fled to the ſouth.

Akau had now no rival, except Hidaet, khan of Ghilan, who was forced to fly from Raſht, his place of reſidence, but was killed near the port of Sinſili. In conſequence of theſe events Akau became monarch of all weſtern Perſia; and being an eunuch, had nominated for his ſucceſſor his nephew Baba Serdar. In 1794 Akau, the ſovereign of weſtern Perſia, was about fifty-five years of age, of a tall ſtature, but diſagreeable countenance; and ſaid to poſſeſs uncommon art, mingled with much avarice and ambition. He was the ſon of a Bek, or inferior nobleman, who, after the death of Nadir, ſeized Mazendran, and aſſumed the title of khan, and the yet higher ſtyle of ſerdar, only borne by the moſt powerful khans. The father of Akau reigned twelve years, till in 1762 he was conquered and ſlain by Kerim, after a war of ſome years; and his ſon Akau was deprived of his manhood by command of the conqueror.

The unintereſting hiſtory of Ghilan, and the adjacent provinces to the weſt, may be traced in Gmelin and Pallas.

Having thus, as briefly as poſſible, diſcuſſed the recent hiſtory of weſtern Perſia, the eaſtern half yet remains, being unhappily ſeparated in Eaſtern Perſia.

Eastern Persia.

a great degree by high ridges of mountains and ſandy deſerts, a circumſtance which has been repeatedly productive of great diſaſters to this wide empire. If a more central ſeat of government had been originally ſelected, for example near the ſea of Zurra or Arian lake of antiquity, it is probable that induſtry might have effected much in fertilizing the central diſtricts; and the power of the ancient Aſſyrians, or of the Arabian chalifs, could not have effected ſuch ſudden conqueſts of the empire. But during its utmoſt extent to the Mediterranean ſea, the weſtern provinces had been ſelected as the ſeats of empire, which became fixed by opinion and prejudice.

This natural ſeparation has occaſioned great obſcurity in the ancient hiſtory of Perſia, the eaſtern half remaining a diſtinct and independent country, of the ſame general name with the weſtern, but with limits and hiſtory totally diſtinct. The ſeries of events after the Mahometan conqueſt; the kingdoms of Coraſan, Samarcand, and Ghizni; and in recent times that of Candahar; may lead to ſafe concluſions concerning a ſimilar diviſion in remote periods.

The beſt materials concerning the kingdom of Candahar ſeem to be thoſe collected by Rennell; and they are, if poſſible, yet more ſcanty than thoſe concerning the weſtern half. Ahmed Abdalla, firſt king of Candahar, was originally the chief of an Afgan tribe, conquered by Nadir Shah, on whoſe death he ſuddenly appeared among his former ſubjects, and ſoon erected a conſiderable kingdom in the eaſtern part of Perſia, including moſt of the Indian provinces ceded by the Mogul to Nadir. He eſtabliſhed his capital at Cabul, at a ſecure diſtance behind the mountains of Hindoo Koh; but the deplorable anarchy of weſtern Perſia formed a ſufficient ſecurity in that quarter.

Ahmed died about the year 1773, and was ſucceeded by Timur, who continued to reſide at Cabul; but the monarchy has been ſtyled that of Candahar from a central province. The ſucceſſor of Timur was Zemaun, who probably ſtill rules this extenſive country, which has happily been free from the inteſtine commotions which have deſolated weſtern Perſia. Since the great battle of Panniput, fought by Ahmed Abdalla againſt the Marattas 1761, the kingdom of Candahar ſeems to have remained in a pacific ſtate, and the government is of applauded lenity.

The furtheſt extent of this monarchy on the eaſt compriſes Caſhmir, which was probably ſubdued about 1754.[2] In the weſt, according to the opinion of Rennell,[3] it extends to the vicinity of the city of Terſhiz, or Turſhiz, in the ſame line of longitude with Meſhid, a length of about 900 B. miles. The province of Sindi, at the mouth of the Indus, is alſo ſubject to Zemaun, with the weſtern part of Moultan; but the remainder on the eaſt bank of that river, and the wide and fertile province of Lahore, are poſſeſſed by the Seiks, a warlike nation. The other provinces are Kuttore, Cabul, Candahar, and within the Perſian boundary Segiſtan, and probably Mekran, with the eaſtern part of Coraſan, and the province of Gaur, the medial breadth being probably about 500 miles. The remainder of Balk and Great Bucharia belong to Independent Tatary. The chief ſubjects of Zemaun are the Afgans, or people of the mountains between Perſia and Hindoſtan, who may be conſidered as the founders of the empire; the others are Hindoos, Perſians, and a few Tatars. If weſtern Perſia continue united, it is probable that a violent conteſt may ariſe between the two ſovereignties. Eastern Persia.

CHAPTER II.

Political Geography.

Religion.—Government.—Population.—Army.—Navy.—Revenues.—Political Importance and Relations

THE religion of Perſia is well known to be the Mahometan, which was introduced by the ſword, and has been followed by its uſual effects, the deſtruction and depopulation of the country. Yet the Perſians adopt a milder ſyſtem of this creed than is followed by the Turks and Arabs. Their native good ſenſe, and benignity of manners, Religion.

[2] Forſter, ii. 14. [3] Page 152.

led

Religion. led them to reject ſeveral abſurdities, whence they are regarded by the other Mahometans as heretics, and are termed *Chias*, while the pretended true believers uſurp the name of *Sunnis*. Chardin has employed a whole volume in deſcribing the Perſian ſyſtem of Mahometaniſm; and to his work the curious reader is referred.*

Of the Parſees, or ancient worſhippers of fire, there ſeem to be no remains in Perſia, except perhaps a few viſitors of the fiery eruptions of naphtha near Baku, on the weſtern ſhores of the Caſpian.[1] Theſe innocent idolaters have been almoſt extirpated by Mahometan fanaticiſm, which has propagated every ſcandal that malice could invent, repreſenting them as devourers of children, and familiar with other atrocities. Mr. Hanway informs us that theſe Guebers, or infidels, particularly worſhip the everlaſting fire near Baku, an emblem of Ormuzd, or the ſupreme ineffable Creator; while the evil principle believed to have ſprung from matter was ſtyled Ahriman.[2] But the chief worſhippers of the fire of Baku come from Hindoſtan, to which the Parſees retreated when Abas expelled them from his empire; and they ſtill abound near Bombay, where their ſingular mode of ſepulture excites attention, as they expoſe their dead in incloſed areas to be devoured by birds of prey, a cuſtom which has been propagated to ſome other oriental nations. Mr. Hanway ſays that there were ſtill ſome worſhippers of fire at a place thence ſtyled Gueberabad, near Iſpahan.

The prieſts of the Mahometan religion, or Mullas, are in Perſia often ſtyled *Akonds*, which ſignifies readers; and they not only preach in the moſks, but are often ſchoolmaſters.[3] The Pechnamas are ſuperior Mullas, or Vicars of the Imams.† The Fakirs and Calenders are wandering monks, or rather ſturdy beggars; who, under the pretext of religion, compel the people to maintain them in idleneſs. But they do not appear in ſuch crowds as the Goſeins and Fakirs of Hin-

* Tome vii. Edit. 1711, 12mo, 10 vol. This edition is inconvenient in ſize, as the plates are more fit for a folio; and it is beſides not ſo complete as the laſt quarto edition in four volumes, Amſt. 1735.

[1] Gmelin in the Decouvertes Ruſſes. Berne 17-9, ſix vols. 8vo, tome ii. 19.

[2] Travels, i. 263. [3] Chardin, x. 79.

† The chief prelate is ſtyled Sheik al Sellaum, or head of the faith: alſo Sader Caſſa, or High Prieſt; and ſometimes Navab, or Vicar (of the Prophet). Sanſon, 20.

doſtan,

doſtan, upon their ſolemn pilgrimages to the chief temples, and other ſacred places. Religion.

The Government of Perſia, like that of all other oriental ſtates, appears to have been always deſpotic; and national councils ſeem only to have been known among the barbarous nations of central Aſia, and abandoned when their ſovereigns had conquered the ſouthern and civilized nations; as, finding no ſuch forms eſtabliſhed, they did not perceive any advantage in their introduction. The government of eaſtern Perſia, or the kingdom of Candahar, is repreſented as mild; and it is to be hoped that of weſtern Perſia, when firmly eſtabliſhed, will aſſume the ſame character. The ſtate of the people ſeems to be deplorable, being ſubject to the arbitrary power and extortions of the numerous Khans or chiefs, an appellation introduced by the Tatars, the Perſian being it is believed Mirza, which is now addreſſed to every gentleman. Theſe Khans are ſometimes governors of provinces, ſometimes only poſſeſſors of ſmall diſtricts, and pretend to hereditary ſucceſſion, though liable to be forfeited or put to death by the arbitrary mandate of the ſovereign. The great Khans are ſometimes ſtyled Beglerbegs, or lords of lords; and in time of war Serdars, or generals. Thoſe who command cities are commonly ſtyled Darogas or governors.* Government.

The preſent ſtate of the population of Perſia cannot be juſtly eſtimated, but it perhaps little exceeds that of Aſiatic Turkey, which has been computed at ten millions. Of theſe perhaps ſix millions may belong to weſtern Perſia; while the other four contribute towards the population of the kingdom of Candahar. Population.

Though Mr. Franklin have ſuppoſed that the rival kings in weſtern Perſia could not muſter more than twenty thouſand men each, yet the account of Pallas implies that Aga Mamet raiſed an army of ſeventy thouſand. But ſuppoſing weſtern Perſia united, and ſomewhat reinſtated in proſperity, it is not probable that the army could exceed 100,000 effective men, which may probably be the amount of that of Candahar. Army.

[illegible] particular precepts in the laws of Zoroaſter, which it was impoſſible to obſerve at ſea, the ancient Perſians never were a maritime Navy.

* Chardin, vi. 41.

people,

Navy. people, though they commanded an ample gulf with the mouths of the Euphrates and the Tigris. The king of kings ordered Phenician veſſels to be uſed on maritime expeditions; and though the Arabian Chalifs of Bagdad opened an extenſive commerce at Buſſora, yet the Perſians themſelves ſeem in all ages to have been little addicted to traffic. The commerce on the Indian ocean, as well as on the Caſpian ſea, has been always chiefly conducted by the Armenians, a moſt induſtrious and reſpectable people. Chardin, himſelf an opulent merchant, affects to believe that commerce is highly honourable in the eaſt; yet he confeſſes that the Mahometan religion is adverſe to trade, from the interdiction of uſury, and ſeveral precepts of more minute obſervance. Hence in Turkey the Chriſtians and Jews are the chief merchants; and in Perſia the Armenian Chriſtians, and the Hindoos. Hence the commerce of this country, ſo advantageouſly ſituated, has always been in the hands of ſtrangers; while the natives, with feudal pride, attend to their horſes and the chace, and lead what is called the life of a gentleman, neither improving their own property nor the country in general. Scarcely one Perſian veſſel therefore has in any age navigated any ſea; and the very name of a warlike navy ſeems unknown: in which reſpect they are far inferior even to the Turks, whoſe eſtabliſhment in Europe has inſenſibly introduced many practices of the unbelievers.*

Revenues. The actual revenues of Perſia it is impoſſible to eſtimate; but the ruinous ſtate of the country muſt render it unproductive. The Turkiſh revenue has been computed at ſeven millions ſterling; and it may perhaps be conjectured with ſome ſhew of probability that the monarch of Candahar may draw from his various and extenſive provinces about three millions ſterling; while weſtern Perſia ſcarcely ſupplies two millions. Chardin[6] ſays that the ancient revenue conſiſted partly in contributions in kind; Kurdiſtan, for inſtance, furniſhing butter, while Georgia ſupplied female ſlaves; partly from the royal domains, with a third of metals, precious ſtones, and pearls; and a few duties and

5 iv. 265.

* The miſſionary Sanſon, *Voyage de Perſe*, Paris 1695, page 108, tells us that the Perſians ſo much abhor navigation that they term all ſeamen *Nacoda*, that is to ſay, Atheiſts.

6 vi. 133.

taxes.

taxes. The whole revenue was by ſome eſtimated at 700,000 tomans,* or about thirty-two millions of French livres. Revenues.

The political importance and relations of Perſia are now greatly reſtricted. Were the weſtern part united under one ſovereign, it might lend effectual aſſiſtance to the Ruſſians in any deſign againſt the Turks, and might probably be rewarded with the countries as far as the Euphrates. But in its recent diſtracted ſtate, Perſia has been little formidable even to the declining power of Turkey; and the Ruſſians ſeem to entertain no deſire of extending their conqueſts over the mountainous Caſpian provinces, which Peter the Great once held and abandoned, as they would require more garriſons than the revenue could pay. So that Perſia ſeems ſecure on the ſide of Ruſſia, as well as on that of Turkey, and Arabia; this unhappy ſecurity being in fact one grand cauſe of the civil anarchy. Political Importance and Relations.

Eaſtern Perſia, or the kingdom of Candahar, appears to have little to apprehend from the Seiks on the other ſide of the Indus; and the Uzbek Khans of Balk, Bucharia, and Khariſm, are diſunited and little formidable, though they command a warlike people. It is therefore more probable that theſe countries may be vanquiſhed by the kings of Candahar, than that any danger ſhould ariſe from the Uzbeks. A conteſt may probably happen between eaſtern and weſtern Perſia; but even if united under one ſovereign, it would be long before this country could reſume her rank among powerful nations. The only interfering intereſts of the king of Candahar, and the Britiſh ſettlements in Hindoſtan, ſeem to authoriſe the idea that an alliance would be advantageous to both, in reſpect to any danger from the native powers; but if Candahar were aſſailed from the north or weſt, the Britiſh aſſtance would be remote, and of doubtful conſequence. Were Candahar inimical, the aſſiſtance of the Uzbeks might be of more importance to us than that of Weſtern Perſia.

* The toman is computed at about 3l. 7s. being rather more than equal to two gold mohurs, a gold coin of Hindoſtan, worth about thirty-two ſhillings. Chardin computes the toman at forty-five livres of his time.

CHAPTER III.

Civil Geography.

Manners and Cuſtoms.—Language.—Literature.—Education.—Cities.—Manufactures and Commerce.

Manners and Customs.

THE manners and cuſtoms of the Perſians, in the ſeventeenth century, have been ſo amply detailed by Chardin, Thevenot, Sanſon, and other travellers, that the theme has become trivial, and full of unneceſſary repetition. One of the moſt curious pictures is contained in a French work called *Les Beautés de la Perſe*, in which the private life and debaucheries of the reigning Sefi are deſcribed.[1]

More modern ideas of Perſian manners may be derived from the travels of Gmelin in Ghilan.* The Perſians ſtill pride themſelves in univerſal politeneſs, and are hoſpitable, not however without the expectation of preſents in return. They ſeem to conſider themſelves as more wiſe and ſagacious than other nations, yet are paſſionate; and the recent commotions have imparted a taint of cruelty to the national character.[2] Of a ſanguine temperament, both rich and poor are generally gay; and immoderate mirth will ſucceed the moſt violent quarrels. They are extremely attached to the fair ſex, and not averſe to wine. The general complexion is fair, ſomewhat tinged with olive; but thoſe in the ſouth about Shiraz, of Candahar, and the provinces towards India, are of a dark brown. They are commonly fat, with black hair, high forehead, aquiline noſe, full cheeks, and a large chin, the form of the countenance being frequently oval. According

[1] By Deſlandes, Paris 1673, 4to. page 38.

* *Hiſtoire des Decouvertes faites par divers ſavans Voyageurs dans pluſieurs contrées de la Ruſſie et de la Perſe.* Six vols. 8vo. Berne 1779–1787. By a ſingular typographical negligence the running title of tomes iii. iv. of this intereſting publication bear *Voyage en Perſe*, while that title ſhould ceaſe at page 93 of tome iii: the remainder of that, and the next volume, relating ſolely to the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, and the N. of the Caſpian, the Kalmucs, Baſhkirs, and Uralian mountains! This is perhaps one of the ſtrangeſt errors in the whole circle of bibliography.

[2] Decouv. Ruſſ. ii. 276.

to

Manners and Customs.

to our traveller a Perſian beauty is moſt eſteemed when of middle ſtature, with long black hair, black eyes and eye brows, long eye laſhes, fair complexion, with very little red, ſmall noſe, mouth, and chin, white teeth, long neck, breaſt not full, ſmall feet and hands, ſlender ſhape, and ſkin extremely ſmooth. In the purchaſe of Georgian and Circaſſian ſlaves it is probable that theſe marks are as familiar as thoſe of a beautiful horſe among our jockies. The men are generally ſtrong and robuſt, and inclined to martial exerciſes, but they are particularly ſubject to diſorders of the eyes. They generally ſhave the head, and wear high crimſon bonnets; but the beard is ſacred, and tended with great care. They often wear three or four light dreſſes, one above the other, faſtened with a belt and ſaſh; and they are fond of large cloaks of thick cloth. The women wrap around their heads pieces of ſilk of different colours; and their robes are rather ſhorter than thoſe of the men, but there is an unpleaſant ſimilarity in other reſpects. The Perſians eat twice or thrice a day, dining about noon, but the chief repaſt is the ſupper, as with the ancient Greeks and Romans. The moſt uſual diſh is boiled rice variouſly prepared; and their manner of eating is diſguſting to European delicacy. The meat is boiled to exceſs, and the meal is enlarged with pot herbs, roots, and fruits, cakes, hard eggs, and above all ſweetmeats, of which they are extremely fond: but they ſpeak little, and the repaſt never exceeds an hour. They are remarkable for cleanlineſs, both in their perſons and habitations; and the vulgar are given to inſult ſtrangers, whom they conſider as impure.

Circumciſion is performed by a ſurgeon, ſometimes within ten days after the birth, and at others ten years; but that of girls is unknown, and confined to the Arabs. Marriages are conducted by female mediation; and the pomp and ceremonies ſomewhat reſemble the Ruſſian. Polygamy is allowed; but the firſt married is the chief wife. Burials are conducted with little ſplendour, and the day of death is commonly that of ſepulture. Yet the tombs of the rich are often grand, as are the Cenotaphs of the twelve Imams, or Vicars of the Prophet, regarded by the Chias as his only lawful ſucceſſors. They believe that a particular

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angel is the ſole author of death, by the ſpecial command of God: hence ſuicide is very rare, and duels abſolutely unknown.

Language.

The language of Perſia is perhaps the moſt celebrated of all the oriental tongues, for ſtrength, beauty, and melody. While the Turkiſh is harſh and meagre, being eſſentially the ſame with that of the Turcomans of Zagathay, or Bucharia (a dialect of the Tataric mingled with Scythian or Gothic terms), the Arabic is, on the contrary, eſteemed one of the moſt opulent: but the numerous ſynonymes are often mere epithets, as man-deſtroyer for ſword, &c. in which reſpect the poetical rules of the Edda ſhew that the Icelandic vied with the Arabic. The latter is however a harſh and guttural ſpeech; whence the Perſian is preferred in poetry and elegant compoſition. The excellent work of Sir William Jones on oriental poetry diſcloſes part of the

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treaſures to be found in this language. In general the Perſian literature approaches nearer to the European, in ſolid good ſenſe, and clearneſs of thought and expreſſion, than that of any other Aſiatic nation; as the language itſelf has been long known to bear a ſtrong affinity to the German, though ſoftened by the long uſage of a poliſhed people. Yet even in the Perſian the metaphors are far too frequent and violent; and there is too much alloy to bear the claſſical touchſtone of Greece or Rome.

The more ancient monuments of Perſian literature unhappily periſhed when the Mahometan fanatics conquered the country in the ſeventh century, though perhaps Bucharia or Tibet might, if diligently explored, ſtill ſupply ſome relics. One of the oldeſt remains is the famous Shah Nama, or hiſtory of kings, a long heroic poem of Ferduſi. Sadi, an excellent and entertaining moraliſt, writes in proſe mingled with verſe, like ſeveral of the Icelandic Sagas, not to mention ſome early Grecian and Roman models; and it is to be regretted that more of his works are not tranſlated.

Hafiz is the Anacreon of the eaſt, and his tomb is venerated in the vicinity of Shiraz, being itſelf the choſen ſhrine of parties of pleaſure, who proceed thither to enjoy the delicious ſituation, and offer libations of the rich Shirazian wine to the memory of their favourite bard, a ſplendid copy of whoſe works is chained to his monument. But the

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ſciences in general are little cultivated by the Perſians, who are loſt in abject ſuperſtition, and fond believers in aſtrology, a proud ſophiſtry which connects the little brief deſtiny of man with the vaſt rotation of innumerable ſuns and worlds. LITERATURE.

The education of the modern Perſians is chiefly military; and their groſs flatteries, and obliquity of expreſſion, evince that they have totally forgotten the noble ſyſtem of their anceſtors, who in the firſt place taught their children to ſpeak truth. This ſimple precept, when duly conſidered, will be found to lead to infinite conſequences, as there is not only a ſtrict connection between truth of expreſſion, and morality of conduct; but falſehood virtually leſſens the mental powers, and neceſſarily produces miſconception, thus impairing the judgment, and contaminating the very ſource of pure morality. Education.

The capital city of modern Perſia is Iſpahan, of which an ample deſcription has been given by Chardin, ſo prolix indeed as to fill a complete volume of his travels.[3] Including the ſuburbs he computes its circuit at about twenty-four miles, and the inhabitants, by the ſmalleſt computation, at 600,000, the ſuppoſed number in modern London. It ſtands on the ſmall river Zenderud, which riſes in the mountains of Yaiabat, three days journey towards the north; but Abas the Great, at a prodigious expence, pierced ſome mountains about thirty leagues from Iſpahan, and introduced another ſtream, ſo that the Zenderud was as large during the ſpring as the Seine at Paris in the winter; for in that ſeaſon the melting of the ſnows, in the high range of mountains, greatly ſwelled the river. Chardin does not inform us in what direction theſe mountains lye, and his whole account is ſufficiently confuſed; nor muſt it be concealed that this honeſt merchant is ſingularly deficient in natural geography and hiſtory. He adds, that the walls of Iſpahan were of earth, and ill repaired, with eight gates which could not be ſhut, and the ſtreets narrow, devious, and badly paved. But the royal ſquare, and its grand market, the palace of the Seſi, and thoſe of the Grandees, the moſks, the public baths, and other edifices, were often ſplendid. The ſuburb of Julfa, or Yulfa, was very large, and poſſeſſed by the Armenians, whoſe cemetery was near the mountains of Iſpahan, Cities. Iſpahan.

[3] Tome viii.

called

Cities. called Kou Sofa, or a mountain in the form of a terrace, and alſo Tag Ruſtan, the hill or throne of Ruſtan. This capital does not appear to be in the ſite of any ancient city, though D'Anville inſinuate that it is the Aſpadana of Ptolemy, which he places in Perſis, and the poſition ſomewhat coincides; but the radical fault of D'Anville's ancient geography is his implicit truſt in the reſemblance of names, and his inattention to the revolutions of modern hiſtory, and the epochs of the foundation of modern cities; as for inſtance, he finds Bergen in Norway, built A. D. 1070, in Pliny's natural hiſtory. The environs of Iſpahan are pleaſant, and, like moſt other Perſian towns and cities, diverſified by the neighbourhood of mountains. This capital was greatly reduced, inſomuch that a Perſian merchant aſſerted to Mr. Hanway that not above five thouſand houſes were inhabited, having been taken and plundered by the Afgans in 1722, who were afterwards repelled to their eaſtern mountains by Nadir.

Shiraz. The ſecond city, at leaſt in fame, is Shiraz, which has been recently viſited and deſcribed by Mr. Franklin. This capital of Farſiſtan, or Perſis, is ſituated in a fertile valley, about twenty-ſix miles in length, and twelve in breadth, bounded on all ſides by lofty mountains: the circuit of the city is about four miles, ſurrounded with a wall twenty-five feet high, and ten thick, with round towers at the diſtance of eighty paces. The citadel is built of brick; and before it is a great ſquare, with a park of miſerable artillery. The moſk of the late Kerim is ſplendid but unfiniſhed; and the modern Perſians ſeem to excel in painting blue and gold in a bright and durable manner. The tomb of Hafiz is on the N. E. ſide, about two miles diſtant from the walls, and at the foot of the mountains, in the ſame direction, is the tomb of Sadi, with a remarkable channel for water hollowed in the rock. Many ſummer houſes with gardens, in the vicinity of Shiraz, were built by the late regent Kerim, the plantations being avenues of cypreſs and ſycamore, leading to parterres of flowers, and refreſhed with fountains of ſtone. The police of this city is ſtrictly obſerved, as it is ſaid to be through the towns of Perſia. The neighbouring fields are fertile in rice, wheat, and barley, the harveſt beginning in May, and ending

in the middle of July. Proviſions are cheap, and the mutton excellent. The famous horſes of Fars now yield greatly to thoſe of Duſh Tiſtan, a province to the S. W. At Shiraz there is a glaſs manufactory; but woollen goods and ſilks are brought from Yezd and Kerman, copper from Tauriz, ſword blades from Kom. Abu Shehar, or Buſheer, ſupplies Indian articles. The climate of this celebrated city is delicious, particularly in the ſpring, when numerous flowers perfume the air; and the Boolbul, or oriental nightingale, the goldfinch, linnet, and other warblers, delight the ear.[4] Cities.

Having thus briefly deſcribed the two moſt celebrated cities, the others ſhall be mentioned in a geographical progreſs from the north, beginning with thoſe of weſtern Perſia. Teffliz, the capital of Georgia, has been deſcribed and delineated by Tournefort, who ſays that it is a large and populous town, but meanly built, riſing from the river Kur along the ſide of a hill.[5] There are fine ſprings of hot water, a favourite reſort of the inhabitants. The chief trade is in furs, ſent to Turkey and the ſouth of Perſia. The preſent circuit is about two Engliſh miles, and it is ſuppoſed to contain 20,000 inhabitants, more than half being Armenians.[6] It muſt not be forgotten that during the late confuſion in Perſia, Georgia has effected at leaſt a temporary independence, ſupported by Ruſſia; ſo that the dominion of prince Heraclius is only nominally included within the Perſian boundary. Teffliz.

Derbent was formerly a place of noted ſtrength on the Caſpian ſea, but was taken by Peter the Great of Ruſſia, and afterwards by Catherine II in 1780. Gmelin viſited this city a few years before, and deſcribes it as ſituated on the ſide of a mountain, extending almoſt to the ſea, where to the weſt an ancient wall with towers appears to have paſſed to the Euxine. It was governed by a Perſian khan, and in his abſence by a naip, or lieutenant-governor. The ſhores are unfit for anchorage, ſo that there is little commerce, except inland with Ghilan, to which ſaffron, which was greatly cultivated, was exported. The gardens near the town are productive of excellent grapes, and moſt kinds of European fruits. In the ſame region, to the ſouth, is the province Derbent.

[4] Franklin, *paſſim*. [5] ii. 235. [6] Ellis Memoir, p. 49.

of

Cities. of Shirvan, with the towns of Shamaki and Baku. Kuva is a ſmall town to the S. of Derbent, but was the reſidence of a khan.

Erivan. Weſtward, on the Turkiſh frontier, ſtands the city of Erivan, of conſiderable extent, and the capital of Perſian Armenia, but the houſes are meanly built, like moſt of thoſe in Perſia.[7] The caſtle and other fortifications are mean, and incapable of ſerious defence. Proviſions are plentiful, and good wine is produced in the neighbourhood. After repeated conteſts with the Turks, the Perſians have remained maſters of Erivan ſince 1635. Not far to the S. W. is the celebrated Armenian monaſtery of the Three Churches: and the noted mount Ararat, which may be regarded as a kind of frontier between the Turkiſh and Perſian dominions, riſes about thirty miles to the ſouth of Erivan.

Tebriz. The province of Aderbijan contains few places of note except Tebriz, or Tauriz, a conſiderable city, which was however greatly injured by an earthquake towards the beginning of the laſt century. The bazars or market places, and other public edifices, are grand and ſpacious; and it is ſaid that the great ſquare has held thirty thouſand men drawn up in order of battle. Chardin computes the inhabitants at half a million; but in that age ſuch calculations were generally exaggerated.[8] In the neighbourhood there are quarries of white marble; and there was a mine of gold, now abandoned; but copper is ſtill wrought. Being ſituated on the weſt ſide of the great Caucaſian maſs of mountains, on which the ſnow remains for nine months of the year, the climate is extremely cold, but dry and healthy. Ardebil and Urmia, in the ſame province, are little memorable, except that the latter gives name to a conſiderable lake.

Raſht. The Caſpian provinces of Ghilan and Mazendran preſent their capitals, Raſht and Sari. The former, by Mr. Gmelin's account, though the reſidence of an independent khan, has neither walls nor gates, but is the ſeat of conſiderable commerce, and the number of houſes may amount to two thouſand. The palace of the khan was compoſed of

[7] Tournefort, ii. 255.

[8] Chardin, ii. 317., who conſiders Tauriz as the ſecond city in Perſia in population, and all other reſpects. Till the ſixteenth century it was the capital and reſidence of the kings, afterwards transferred to Caſbin.

ſeveral large pavilions, arranged in the form of a ſquare, and communicating with each other by handſome galleries. In the midſt was a garden with fountains, and behind was the haram with another garden; the apartments being richly furniſhed with tapeſtry, mirrors, and other elegant articles. Raſht is the ſtaple of the ſilk which is produced in great abundance in this province. Sari, the reſidence of the khans of Mazendran, is of ſmall account, when compared with Aſchraff, a favourite reſidence of Abas the Great, deſcribed in glowing colours by Gmelin, who, however, adds that it had recently fallen into great decay; the ſplendid palaces and gardens having almoſt become ruinous, ſince the commotions that followed the death of Nadir. Aſtrabad, at the S. E. extremity of the Caſpian ſea, has for a long time affected independence, though the people have ſuffered greatly in the attempts to reduce them. The ſituation is picturesque, near a conſiderable bay, with a chain of mountains behind.[9] The cities of Coraſan may more connectedly be mentioned with thoſe in the eaſtern diviſion of Perſia. Cities. Aſchraff.

On returning towards the S. W., there appear Biſtam, a ſmall city on the north of the great ſalt deſert, rarely viſited by travellers; and to the W., Chover or Khavar, with a paſs of the ſame name, through a branch of the Caucaſian mountains of Mazendran, which is preferred to the paſſage through the deſert.

Still proceeding weſtward, three conſiderable cities ſucceſſively occur, Tahiran, Caſbin, and Sultania. Chardin deſcribes Caſbin as a very conſiderable city; but in Hanway's time it had greatly declined, and twelve thouſand houſes were reduced to eleven hundred. It is ſituated in a fair plain, about three leagues from the noted mountains of Aluvend, or Elwend. In the ſixteenth century Shah Tahmas, unable to defend Tauriz againſt the Turks, retired to Caſbin, which he conſtituted the capital city of his empire; a dignity transferred by Abas the Great to Iſpahan. Caſbin.

Hamadan is another conſiderable city in this quarter, ſituated, according to Hanway's account, on the N. W. of the mountain Elwend, while D'Anville places it S. E.[10] Kom or Khums was viſited by Chardin, who in travelling from Sava paſſed a wide plain, with a hill in Kom.

[9] Hanway, ii. 422. Dec. Ruſſ. iii 33. [10] Thevenot, ii. 72. Hanway, i. 163.

Cities. the middle called the mountain of the Taliſman, from ſome ſingular appearance which it aſſumes. He repreſents Kom as a conſiderable city, at the foot of high mountains, and near a conſiderable river, which is loſt in the great ſalt deſert. The houſes were computed at fifteen thouſand; and the chief manufactures were white earthen ware, ſoap, and ſword blades. Here are the ſuperb tombs of Sefi I and Abas II. Caſhan is another conſiderable city on this route to Iſpahan.

Towards the Turkiſh frontier, one of the largeſt rivers of Perſia, the Ahwaz, or ancient Choaſpes, flows into the Tigris; but though the ancient Suſa decorated its banks, the modern towns of Kiab and Ahwaz are of ſmall account; nor is Toſtar, or more properly Shuſter, of much conſequence, though the capital of a province.

In the proximity of the Perſian gulf, Kazerun, Firuzabad, and Jarun,
Lar. or in the oriental pronunciation Yarun, barely deſerve mention. Lar is the capital of a province, formerly a kingdom, conquered by Abas in 1612, and deſcribed by Chardin in his journey from Iſpahan to Bander-Abaſſi.[11] The ſituation is ſandy, amidſt barren mountains; but the gardens abounded with dates, an excellent fruit, which particularly proſpers in this part of Perſia. The houſes were only about two hundred; and the independence of this petty kingdom is a ſtriking proof, among many others, of the complete inattention of the Perſians to their coaſts, as well as to maritime affairs. Were a Peter the Great ever to ariſe among them, he would firſt direct his efforts to remove their ſingular prejudices againſt the ſea; an important ſtep towards rendering Perſia a great and united empire.

The celebrated Perſian gulf has been always more remarkable for the factories of foreigners, than for native eſtabliſhments. Bander-Abaſſi was a port oppoſite to the iſle of Ormus, or rather on the coaſt between Ormus and Kiſhmiſh, or Kiſhma, and is now more commonly known by
Gombroon. the name of Gombroon. The trade, once conſiderable, is now greatly declined; and even the Dutch left it, and ſettled in the iſle of Karek or Garak. The French Indian commerce has failed; and the Engliſh ſtaple is Buſſora. But Buſheer, and Rik, or Bundarik, are alſo ſometimes frequented.

[11] ix. 214.

In the ſmall iſle of Ormus, at the entrance of the Perſian gulf, was formerly a celebrated mart of Portugueſe trade, eſtabliſhed there by conſent of the petty king of the country, who alſo poſſeſſed ſome diſtricts on the oppoſite coaſt.* But the Portugueſe were expelled by Abas the Great, with the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh, A. D. 1622. Cities. Ormus.

The extenſive coaſt of Mekran only preſents two ſemblances of ports, at Tiz and Guadal, but of no moment in themſelves, and placed in diſadvantageous poſitions, the wide deſerts obſtructing the inland intercourſe. Nor are the towns in that province of ſufficient importance for the conſideration of general geography.

The province of Kerman contains a city of the ſame name; but ſome late authors repreſent Yezd as the capital, though generally ſuppoſed to belong to the province of Fars. This city is celebrated for the manufacture of carpets, and ſtuffs made of camel hair: but the chief manufactures of carpets are in the fertile vale of Segiſtan, in eaſtern Perſia. To the north of Yezd ſtands Hirabad, a conſiderable town, near the mountain of Elburz, and not far from the ſouthern limits of the great ſalt deſert; which if not the deſert of Margiana, placed by Ptolemy on the N. W. of the Aria-Palus or ſea of Zurra, ſeems to have been unknown to the ancients. The other cities of weſtern Perſia ſcarcely deſerve commemoration. Yezd.

In paſſing to the eaſtern diviſion, or kingdom of Candahar, it may be proper to obſerve that Cabul, the metropolis, is ſituated within the limits of Hindoſtan; but Candahar† is by D'Anville and others aſcribed to Perſia, being however a city of ſmall ſize, and chiefly memorable as the grand paſſage between theſe extenſive empires. The province of Segiſtan is in general little known in modern travels; and it is to be regretted that Mr. Forſter paſſed with ſuch rapidity, and did not viſit the Eaſtern Cities. Candahar.

* The curious reader may conſult Teiſheira's hiſtory of Perſia for that of Ormus, written by Torun Shah, king of the country. The kings were Arabs, as were probably thoſe of Lar, and entertained conſtant intercourſe with the oppoſite coaſt of Arabia.

† Mr. Forſter, ii. 102., informs us that Candahar is of a ſquare form, about three miles in circumference, ſituated in an extenſive plain, the ſuppoſed mountains being merely interſperſed hills. But to the W. there is a conſiderable deſert, extending nearly to Herat, which conſtitutes the real difficulty in paſſing from Perſia to Hindoſtan.

Eastern Cities.

vale fertilized by the river Hinmend, nor the intereſting environs of the ſea of Zurra. Zarang is ſuppoſed to equal any city in Segiſtan, retaining the ancient name of the Sarangæ: it is now chiefly remarkable for beautiful porcelain.[12] The other chief towns on the Hinmend are Dargaſp, Boſt, and Rokhage or Arokhage. Near another ſtream which flows into the ſea of Zurra, or rather Zerab, is Farra, another place little known. In general D'Anville and other writers have been obliged to have recourſe to Arabian geographers; whence maps often preſent places which may no longer be in exiſtence.

Herat.

The dominion of Zemaun Shah comprizes a conſiderable portion of Coraſan. The city of Herat ſtands on a ſpacious plain, interſected with many rivulets, which, with the bridges, villages, and plantations, delight the traveller, fatigued in paſſing the eaſtern deſerts of Afganiſtan, or the country of the Afgans.[13] It is a ſmaller city than Candahar, but maintains a reſpectable trade, and proviſions are cheap and abundant. Some European goods paſs hither from the gulf of Perſia; but coarſe ſtrong woollens are manufactured in the adjacent diſtricts. This city was the capital of Coraſan, till the firſt Sefi of Perſia transferred this rank to the northern city of Meſhid, which contained the tomb of Muza, his ſuppoſed anceſtor, and one of the twelve great Imams of Perſia.* When Mr. Forſter viſited this country, 1784, Meſhid, with a ſmall territory, was held by Shah Rok, a grandſon of Nadir. The diſtricts of Dochabad then formed the weſtern boundary of the empire of Candahar, being about thirty or forty miles to the E. of Turſhiz.

It is probable, as already mentioned, that the ſouthern province of Mekran naturally coincides in allegiance, with Segiſtan and Sindi, to the empire of Candahar; but the northern limits have not been defined, though Major Rennell inform us that they include Gaur, a conſiderable city and province. Bamian belongs to the ſame portion of Bucharia, and is remarkable for a variety of ſingular antiquities, obſervable in the

[12] Chardin. iv. 243., who calls it Zorend, and erroneouſly places it in Kerman.

[13] Forſter, ii. 115.

* Mr. Forſter informs us, i. 32, that the road from Herat to Ghilan lies through the leſſer Irak, which he diſtinguiſhes from Irakajemi; but, among many inaccuracies in his book, he confounds this laſt with Irakarabi! Meſhid is ſuppoſed to be the ſame with Tuz, the birth-place of the celebrated Ferduſi.

adjacent

adjacent mountains. But for the ſake of greater coherency, theſe places ſhall be conſidered in the account of Independent Tatary, or the countries between Perſia and the Chineſe and Ruſſian empires, which follows this imperfect deſcription of Perſia. Eastern Cities.

In the recent deſolation of the country many of the moſt ſplendid edifices are become ruinous, and among others the palace of Aſhref in Mazendran. The late Kerim has however decorated Shiraz with many beautiful buildings. He alſo improved the roads in the vicinity; but in Perſia, which may, as Chardin obſerves, be called a country of mountains, the roads are not only difficult, but kept in bad repair.* The ſingular averſion of the natives to any kind of navigation, has prevented even the idea of improving the country by canals. Edifices.

The manufactures and commerce of this great country may be ſaid to be annihilated, though a few carpets ſtill reach Europe at extravagant prices. Even the trade with the Ruſſians on the Caſpian is of ſmall account, conſiſting of ſalt and naphtha from Baku, and ſome ſilk from Shirvan, called by the Ruſſians Shamakia, but chiefly from Ghilan, where there is a Ruſſian conſul at Enſeli or Sinſili. The Perſian merchants alſo bring goods to Balfruſh, the largeſt town in Mazendran, where they trade with thoſe of Ruſſia. Concerning the modern ſtate and decline of Perſian commerce, the travels of the late worthy Mr. Hanway, who was wholly occupied with that ſubject, will give ſatisfaction to the moſt inquiſitive reader.† Manufactures and Commerce.

That intelligent but prolix traveller, Chardin, has given an ample view of the Perſian manufactures and commerce in the ſeventeenth century. Embroidery was carried to the greateſt perfection, on cloth, ſilk and leather. Earthen ware was made throughout Perſia; but the beſt at Shiraz, Meſhid, Yezd, and particularly beautiful at Zarang, which equalled the Chineſe porcelain in fineneſs and tranſparency: ſome ſorts reſiſted fire, and the fabric was ſo hard as to produce laſting mortars for grinding various ſubſtances.[14] That of Yezd, which Chardin places in Kerman,

* The cauſy of Abas the Great is a noble monument, extending about 300 B. miles on the S. of the Caſpian. Hanway, i. 198.

† The beſt edition is that of 1754, two vols. 4to. In the pretended one, 1762, the title page only is new.

[14] iv. 243.

was

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.

was noted for its lightneſs. It is remarkable that Pliny ſays, that the famous Murrhine veſſels of the ancients were brought from this identic province of Carmania;[15] and were probably porcelain, if ſome ſingular mineral be not yet concealed in that country. The manufactures of leather, and ſhagreen, were alſo excellent;* and they excelled in braziery, uſing the tin of Sumatra to line the veſſels. The bows of Perſia were the moſt eſteemed of all in the eaſt, and the ſabres finely damaſked, in a manner which Chardin thinks inimitable in Europe; for, not content with their own mines of ſteel, or carbonated iron ore, they imported it from India, and wrought it in a particular manner deſcribed by our author. Their razors, and other works in ſteel, were alſo laudable; and they excelled in cutting precious ſtones, and dying bright and laſting colours: the glaſs manufactures were of an inferior deſcription. Their cotton and woollen cloths, and thoſe made of goats' and camels' hair, with their ſilks, brocades, and velvets, were ſuperior manufactures. The carpets, as already mentioned, were chiefly from the province of Segiſtan; and Chardin adds, that in his time they were called Turkey carpets, becauſe they were brought to Europe through that country; and were valued by the number of threads in the inch, being ſometimes fourteen or fifteen. The ſtuffs made of camels' hair were chiefly from Kerman, and thoſe of goats' hair from the mountains of Mazendran; but the cotton cloths principally from Hindoſtan: and the fabric of broad cloth was unknown, and ſupplied by a kind of felt.

The king himſelf was engaged in merchandize of ſilk, brocades, carpets, and jewels; probably with as little advantage to the country as the royal monopolies in Spain. The ſtandard native merchandize was ſilk of various qualities. To Hindoſtan were ſent tobacco, preſerved fruits, eſpecially dates, wines, horſes, porcelain, and leather of different colours. To Turkey, tobacco, kitchen utenſils; to Ruſſia, manufactured ſilks. Such were formerly the manufactures and commerce of this extenſive country.

[15] Lib. 37. cap. 2.

* The proper term is *ſagrin*, from the Perſian word *ſagri*. Chard. iv. 246.

CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Deſerts.—Foreſts.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Mineral Waters.—Natural Curioſities.—Iſles.

CLIMATE.

PERSIA has been ſaid to be a country of three climates; but even in the ſouth the high mountains contribute to allay the extreme heat. The northern provinces, on the Caſpian, are comparatively cold and moiſt; the exhalations from that ſea being arreſted by the mountains to the ſouth of Mazendran. In the centre of the kingdom Chardin obſerves that the winter begins in November, and continues till March, commonly ſevere, with ice and ſnow; though the latter chiefly falls on the mountains, and remains on thoſe three days' journey to the W. of Iſpahan for eight months of the year.[1] From March to May high winds are frequent; but thence to September the air is ſerene, refreſhed by breezes in the night. From September to November the winds again prevail. In the centre and ſouth the air is generally dry, whence thunder or lightning are uncommon, and a rainbow is ſeldom ſeen. Earthquakes are almoſt unknown; but hail is often deſtructive in the ſpring. Near the Perſian gulf the hot wind called Samiel ſometimes ſuffocates the unwary traveller.

Face of the Country.

According to Chardin, Perſia may be called a country of mountains; and where great plains occur they are generally deſert. The moſt remarkable feature of the country is the want of rivers; in which reſpect it yields to all the Aſiatic regions, ſave Arabia. Except in the north, and ſome parts of the weſtern mountains, even trees are uncommon; and the reſpect paid by the Perſian monarchs to planes, and other trees of diffuſe ſhade, is no matter of ſurprize. Conſidered in a general ſcale,

[1] iv. 19.

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Face of the Country.

one of the moſt ſingular features of the country is its diviſion into two parts by deſarts and mountains; a circumſtance which in all ages, as already explained, has greatly influenced its hiſtory and deſtinies.

Soil and Agriculture.

The ſoil may be regarded as unfertile, and Chardin ſuppoſes that not above one tenth part was cultivated even in his time. To his lax obſervation, that Perſia is the moſt mountainous country in the world, he adds that the mountains are extremely arid, being moſtly rocks, without wood or plants. They are, however, interſperſed with vallies, ſometimes ſandy and ſtony, ſometimes of a hard dry clay; both unproductive, if not well watered. Hence the chief induſtry of the Perſian farmer is employed in watering his lands. Theſe remarks however muſt be reſtricted to the central and ſouthern provinces; for thoſe in the north are ſufficiently rich and fertile, and it is ſaid that the province of Segiſtan is enriched by the inundations of the river Hinmend: but of this part of Perſia our knowledge remains imperfect.

The moſt common grain of Perſia is wheat, which is excellent; but rice is a more univerſal aliment, and regarded by the Perſians as the moſt delicious of food.[2] It is generally produced in the northern, or beſt watered, provinces. Barley and millet are alſo ſown, but oats little, if at all, cultivated. The Armenians ſow ſome rye. The plough is ſmall, and the ground merely ſcratched: it is drawn by lean oxen, for there are no paſtures to fatten cattle, and the harneſs is attached to the breaſt, while the chief ſtrength of the animal is in the head. After the plough and harrow, the ſpade is alſo uſed to form the ground into ſquares, with ledges or little banks to retain the water. The dung is chiefly human, and that of pigeons mingled with earth, and preſerved for two years to abate its heat. In the N. W. countries the vines are interred during the winter; and when inſects attack the tree, they lay freſh earth to the roots.

Rivers.

The noble ſtreams of the Euphrates and the Tigris can ſcarcely at any period be conſidered as ſtrictly Perſian, though Cteſiphon, the capital of the Parthian monarchy, and Seleucia, ſtood on the latter river. The river of Ahwaz riſes in the mountains of Elwend, and purſues a ſouthern courſe till one branch enter the Tigris above its junction with the Eu-

[2] Chardin, iv. 222.

phrates, while the main ſtream flows into the eſtuary of theſe conjunct rivers. This ſeems to be the Gyndes of Herodotus, now, according to D'Anville, called the Zeindeh, and by the Turks Kara Sou, or the black river.* The courſe of this ſtream, one of the moſt conſiderable in Perſia, little exceeds 400 B. miles. Rivers.

From the range of mountains on the N. E., ſeveral rivers of ſhort courſe fall into the Perſian gulf, one of the moſt conſiderable being the Rud or Divrud, which joins the mouth of that gulf. The rivers of Mekran are of more conſiderable courſe, as the Krenk and Mekſhid, which, conjoined, form the river of Mend, ſo called from a town by which it paſſes. The Haur and the Araba are of ſmall conſequence, except that the latter ſerves as a nominal boundary towards Hindoſtan.

In the N. E. the large river of Gihon, better ſtyled Amu, to avoid the confuſed ſimilarity with another large river, the Sihon, rather belongs to Independent Tatary, with its numerous tributary ſtreams; except the Margus or Margab, called alſo the Mourgab, which however, in the opinion of D'Anville and La Rochette, is rather loſt in the ſands. To the W., the river of Tedjen or Tedyen,† the ancient Ochus, flows into the Caſpian; which alſo receives many ſmall ſtreams from the mountains of Mazendran. D'Anville aſſigns a very conſiderable courſe to the river of Kizil Ozen, or Sefid Rud, which he derives from the mountain of Elwend, not far to the N. of Hamadan; ſo that, by a very winding courſe to the Caſpian, its length doubles what is aſſigned in more recent maps. This river is the Mardus of antiquity, and muſt be the Swidura of Gmelin, riſing on the confines of Turkey, and falling into the ſea below Langorod.‡ It produces numerous pike, carp, and other kinds of fiſh, eſteemed by the Perſians: Gmelin ſays that it abounds in ſturgeons. Amu.

* See his map of the Euphrates and the Tigris, 1779, in which the Choaſpes is ſuppoſed to run by Deurak into the Perſian gulf on the E. of the Shat el Arab; but Major Rennell, in his map of the Satrapies, conſiders the Gyndes of D'Anville as the Choaſpes, and the Gyndes, as the river of Mendeli. The geography of Perſia remains very imperfect.

† In the eaſt, as in many European countries, the *J* is an open *I*, or a *Y*.

‡ Decouvertes Ruſſes, ii. 373. See alſo Hanway, i. 179, and 275, where this river is called Seſietrood. There is a bar at the entrance, but a conſiderable depth within. It is of a reddiſh tinge. Ib. 178.

Rivers. Aras.

Further to the N. the large river Aras, the ancient Araxes, falls into the Kur or Cyrus, both riſing in the Caucaſian mountains, and purſuing a courſe of extreme rapidity. The Kur abounds with ſturgeon and other large fiſh; and at its mouth are ſeveral iſles, liable to be overflowed in the ſpring.[3]

The central rivers of Perſia remain to be mentioned, moſt of which are ſoon loſt in ſandy deſerts, but deſerve attention from their hiſtorical celebrity. The Zenderud riſes in the weſtern chain of Elwend, and paſſes by Iſpahan, beyond which capital its courſe is ſoon loſt in the ſand: this river ſeems to have been the ſecond Gyndes of the ancients. Chardin ſays that Abas the Great, by piercing ſome mountains thirty leagues from Iſpahan, drew another ſtream into the Zenderud, called Mahmoud Ker, from a deep ſubterranean lake. Theſe two ſources of this river are not indicated in the maps. He adds that there are two rivers in the vicinity called Correng, which paſs through Chaldea (he means Suſiana), probably the Koh Aſp of D'Anville* which paſſes by Shuſter, which the Perſian monarchs in vain attempted to introduce into this favourite ſtream.

Zenderud.

Bundamir.

But the moſt important river in this quarter is that which paſſes between Shiraz and Iſtakar, or the celebrated ruins of Perſepolis, called the Bundamir, and ſuppoſed to be an ancient Araxes. This celebrated river flows into a ſalt lake called Baktegan, and which alſo receives a conſiderable ſtream from the N. E. called the Kuren.† Between theſe two rivers a branch of the mountains of Elwend extends S. E., on the weſtern ſide of which ſtand the ruins of Perſepolis. Theſe mountains, called Rehumut, being conſiderable, and the plain of Merdaſht extenſive, it would ſeem that geographers have too much contracted the ſpace between the rivers of Kuren and Bundamir.

[3] Gmelin, ib. 236.

* See his ancient geography, ii. 485, Engliſh tranſlation, where he adds that it ſprings from the Koh Zerde, or Yellow Mountain, from whoſe oppoſite ſide iſſues the river of Iſpahan; and p. 487, he ſuppoſes the Kuren to be the river which the Perſian kings wiſhed to turn into the Zenderud. All the inland rivers are unknown to Ptolemy.

† This river La Rochette, in his elegant map of the marches of Alexander, ſuppoſes was the Medus, and perhaps a Mardus of the ancients.

The

Rivers. Hinmend.

The largeſt and moſt remarkable inland river is the Hinmend of the province of Segiſtan, which riſes from two widely ſeparated ſources, one in the mountains of Gaur, a part of the Hindoo Koh, and the other far to the S. from the mountains of Gebelabad. Theſe ſtreams join not far to the E. of Boſt, whence the river purſues a weſterly courſe, and, according to the account of Otter,* very ſoon divides into many branches, which are loſt in the central deſerts of Perſia. Our geographers, on the contrary, ſuppoſe that the Hinmend paſſes by Zarang into the ſea of Zerch. It needs not be repeated that the geography of this part of Perſia is ſtill lamentably defective.

Lakes.

Aria Palus, or Durra.

Among the lakes of Perſia the moſt conſiderable beyond all compariſon is the Aria Palus of antiquity. This large lake is in the weſtern part of the province of Segiſtan, and is called in the French maps the lake of Zeré, from a village of that name near its weſtern extremity; but in the Engliſh, the ſea of Durra, from another village ſituated on a river at the diſtance of twenty miles from the lake.* Theſe appellations, derived from trifling ſources, might as well be ſupplanted by that of the ſea of Segiſtan. According to Otter the length is thirty leagues, by a day's journey in breadth; and the water is freſh and full of fiſh. By his account it only receives the river of Ferah, or Parra, which comes from the N. E.; but perhaps that traveller decides upon a brief and haſty information, as not unuſual. Ptolemy, who is here better informed than concerning weſtern Perſia, ſtill errs widely in the poſition of this celebrated lake.

Baktegan.

The ſalt lake of Baktegan, about fifty miles E. of Shiraz, receives, as already mentioned, the rivers of Kuren and Bundamir. It is repreſented in the maps as about forty B. miles in length, and the breadth about ten; but the imperfection of Perſian geography affords no further information.†

* Voyage en Turkie et en Perſe. Paris 1748, two vols. 12mo. tome i. 217.

* The name Zurra ſeems to be from the village of Corra, or Curra, at the weſt end of the lake.

† By Ebn Haukal, in the tenth century, it is called the lake of Baktegan. Ouſeley's tranſlation, p. 84. The ſame author, p. 206, ſays that the Hinmend riſes in Gaur and proceeds to Boſt, thence to the lake Zareh: not by Zarang, as appears from p. 203, but by Schijan.

Lakes. Urmia.

Far to the N. W. appears the large lake of Urmia, ſo called from a town near its ſouthern extremity. This lake is repreſented as about fifty B. miles in length, by about half the breadth; and while D'Anville ſuppoſes that the lake Van, at no great diſtance, is the Arſiſſa of antiquity, he concludes that this is the Spauta of Strabo, and the Marcianes of Ptolemy, being the Capoton of Armenian geography. However this be, the lake of Urmia is ſaid to be conſiderably impregnated with ſalt, and the neighbouring mountains were remarkable as the ſeats of the Aſſaſſins. The lake of Erivan, about 120 B. miles to the N., is about twenty-five leagues in circumference, with a ſmall iſle in the middle: it abounds in carp and trout; and is the Lychnites of Ptolemy.[5]

Erivan.

Mountains.

The preciſe and exact knowledge of mountains, particularly of the direction and extent of the chief ranges, which, with their ſide branches, often reſemble the leading bone of a fiſh, having been one of the moſt recent improvements even in European geography, it cannot be expected that the Oriental ſhould aſpire to much exactneſs in this topic. Travellers have rarely attended to the great geographical features, but have chiefly confined their attention to buildings, and other exertions of human induſtry, or to botany and zoology. Hence the difficulty which attends many branches of geographical deſcription; and in the preſent inſtance early travellers are unanimous in repreſenting Perſia as a plain country, ſo blind were they to the moſt ſtriking objects around them.[6]

The firſt object, even in a ſhort account of the Perſian mountains, muſt be to trace the direction of the chief chains. It is clear, from the accurate deſcription of Gmelin, that the Caucaſian ridge extends to the weſt of Ghilan and ſouth of Mazendran, till it expire in Coraſan, on the S. E. of the Caſpian ſea. As this ridge was the Taurus of the ancients, which they ſuppoſed to extend throughout the whole length of Aſia, it is evident that their idea was erroneous and hypothetical. If it had been connected, as they ſuppoſed, with Hindoo Koh and the mountains of Tibet, the theory might have been in ſome meaſure juſt;

[5] Chardin, ii. 222. Tournef. ii. 256.

[6] See the Perſia among the Elzevir Republics, 1633, 12mo.

Mountains.

but the Hindoo Koh is an extenſion of the Belur Tag towards the W., and is ſeparated even from the low mountains of Coraſan by wide deſerts and plains.

This northern ridge, deſcribed by Gmelin, is ſufficiently clear;* as is the moſt ſouthern chain of great height deſcribed by Mr. Franklin, running parallel with the Perſian gulph N. W. and S. E. at about the diſtance of 50 B. miles.

A third range of mountains, of very great height, ſeems to continue in the ſame direction with this laſt, to the S. of the lake of Urmia, where it is connected with the Caucaſian ridge. This is the grandeſt chain of mountains in Perſia, and may, after the example of D'Anville, be ſtyled that of Elwend, derived from a particular mountain in the neighbourhood of Hamadan; but the Elwend of that great geographer is, like his other mountains, delineated in a moſt confuſed manner; and he intercepts its courſe by a wide deſert which really lies to the W. of the range.†

A parallel ridge on the W., called by the Turks Aiagha Tag, is ſuppoſed to be the Zagros of the ancients, which ſeparated Aſſyria from Media.[7] This weſtern chain ſeems to extend to the lake of Van, for mount Ararat is repreſented as ſtanding ſolitary in the midſt of a wide plain, and from proximity might rather be claſſed with the range of Caucaſus.‡ The mountain of Sawalan, mentioned by Le Brun, to the S. of Ardebil, alſo belongs to the Caucaſian maſs.

Hetzardara, or the thouſand mountains, form a branch on the north of Fars, and one part of it, which gives riſe to the river of Iſpahan, is

* Dec. Ruſſ. ii. 388. The French tranſlator juſtly obſerves that Gmelin's account of their conſtruction ſhews little ſkill in mineralogy. Near Derbent and Baku they are calcareous, but the central chain ſeems granitic. It forms a ſemicircle on the S. of the Caſpian; and Hanway has obſerved, i. 110, that even at Aſtrabad the ſummits are ſo high as to hide the ſun from a ſhip in the bay, for more than an hour after it has riſen.

† Otter, i. 267, informs us that Looriſtan, a country between Tuſter and Iſpahan, is properly one mountain, ſix days' journey in length. It belongs to the main ridge of Elwend.

[7] D'Anville Anc. Geog. ii. 463.

‡ Among the mountains of Kurdiſtan the Kiave is the higheſt, the ſummit being covered with thick fog and perpetual ſnow (Otter, ii. 269). The ſame author ſays that the ridge of Hamrin begins in Arabia, and ſpreads through the deſert of Bagdad, being pierced by the Euphrates and Tigris, and ending at the Perſian gulph: it is a low range of a reddiſh colour. Ib. 43.

called

Mountains. called Koh Zerdeh, or the yellow mountain. Chardin[8] conſiders the noted Damavend of the Perſians as a range dividing Hyrcania from Parthia; that is, in other words, the mountains of Mazendran: and he adds, that of the mountains betwixt Fars and Kerman the moſt remarkable is called Jaron; but the mountains of Kurdiſtan alone preſent foreſts. That ancient geographer Ebn Haukal, whoſe curious work is chiefly occupied with a deſcription of Perſia, according to its diviſions in the tenth century, informs us, that from the vicinity of Kurdiſtan towards Iſpahan, the country is wholly mountainous; and he claſſes among the chief heights the Damavend, from which he ſays a proſpect is beheld of fifty farſangs, or 200 miles; while that of Biſetoun, in the ſame region, was celebrated for remarkable ſculptures.[9] From his geography it appears that many of the Perſians, even in Fars, ſtill retained the temples and worſhip of their anceſtors in the tenth century; ſo that the violence of the Mahometans after the conqueſt appears to have been greatly exaggerated.

The great weſtern range is alſo called in ſome parts the mountains of Looriſtan; and more to the S. the Adervan, and Dinar, with Ajuduk N. of Lar. It detaches ſome remarkable branches to the S. E., as that on the W. of Kom, Caſhan, Nathan, &c.; which from a particular mountain, may be called the range of Elburz. Another branch ſpreads to the S. of Iſpahan, which D'Anville conſiders as what the Perſians ſtyle the Thouſand Mountains.* Still more to the S. a large and extenſive branch (of which the whole, or one mountain is ſtyled Rehumut) extends between the rivers Kuren and Bundamir; and preſents on the weſtern ſide of its furtheſt extremity the noted ruins of Perſepolis.

On paſſing towards the E. of Perſia, the juſt delineation of the ranges is attended with ſimilar difficulties. The paſs of Khavar is near the ſouthernmoſt extent of the Caucaſian heights of Mazendran; and there is no room to believe that any ridge extends into the great ſaline deſert. D'Anville has drawn a range on the E. of that deſert, extending on the

[8] iv. 10.

[9] p. 172. D'Anville marks Demavend due W. of Iſpahan. His Karagan is S. of Sultania.

* One of theſe, near Iſpahan, is called Tag Ruſtan.

S. of Turſhiz as far as the lake of Zeré, called in ſome maps the Sandy mountains, and ſuppoſed to be the Maſdoranus of the ancients: but this ſeems an arbitrary idea, as it is improbable that ancient writers ſhould have obſerved this low ridge of ſandy hills, while the great deſert itſelf totally eſcaped their knowledge. Mr. Forſter croſſed theſe pretended mountains without diſcovering them;* and found only ſmall rocky hills ſcattered in all directions. This ſandy ridge may therefore be diſmiſſed from the maps, along with that ſuppoſed to pervade the ſaline deſert; and the Mons Maſdoranus is probably that which now paſſes near Metziroun, and ſeems to be an elongation of the Caucaſian chain already mentioned. Mountains

In deſcribing this country of mountains, to uſe the emphatical term of Chardin, ſome degree of prolixity is unavoidable. The province of Fars is repreſented by ſome writers as ſeparated from Kerman by mountains; but the real barrier is a deſert of ſand, extending from the S. of the lake of Baktegan to the proximity of Zarang, and connected with the great deſert which divides Perſia into two parts. The city of Yezd being on the weſtern ſide of this deſert, more properly belongs to Fars than to Kerman; and was arranged in the former diviſion, even in the tenth century."[10] Nor are there any mountains of conſequence in the eaſt of Fars. A low range called Meder by D'Anville paſſes N. E. through the heart of Kerman; while that country is divided from Mekran by a range in the ſame direction, called by D'Anville Kofez. Some other nameleſs ranges croſs Mekran in the ſame direction, that neareſt Hindoſtan being called by Rochette the Lakhee mountains. On the N. of Mekran a conſiderable range runs E. and W. which has not been named by D'Anville,† though it ſeem the Becius of Ptolemy. But of this part, as before explained, modern knowledge is very defective.

* Mr. Forſter obſerved no ridges from Candahar to Coraſan, (Rennell, 153; ſee alſo 191,) whence it appears that he found only diſperſed hills, where the maps had repreſented chains of mountains. Herat ſtands on a ſpacious plain; Forſter, ii. 115: but to the N. of Dochabad and Turſhiz, there is a range of mountains covered with ſnow. Ib. 154. The other quarters preſented rocky hills diſperſed in the deſert. About three miles E. of Khanahoody, a chain of mountains of ſome height extends N. and S. Ib. 176.

[10] Ebn Haukal, 86.

† Rochette calls it Gebelabad.

Further

Mountains. Further to the N. the mountains of Wulli extend from the neighbourhood of Shatzan acroſs to the lake of Vaihind, and may thus be conſidered as forming one range with that on the N. of Mekran, called Gebelabad by la Rochette. This range however expires in the great deſert to the S. of Zarang.

In the E. of Segiſtan is a ridge N. and S. called Soliman Koh, or the mountains of Soliman. It is probable that there are mountains of conſiderable height on the N. and W. of the ſea of Zurra; one of which is called Berſhek, and another Ouk, the former being noted for a Fire temple, the reſort of the Guebers.

The Hindoo Koh, and the mountains of Gaur, the laſt, probably the Paropamiſus of antiquity, need not be again mentioned, except to obſerve that they have no connection with the chain of Caucaſus, as the ancients ſuppoſed; or they were rather miſled by ſimilar names being beſtowed on very diſtant mountains, in the wide extent of the Scythian language. They might as well have inferred that mount Imaus was a continuation of Hemus. As vaſt ſandy deſerts intercept any continuity of ridges in the centre, or ſouth of Perſia, ſo in the N. E., the mountains of Coraſan are widely ſeparated from thoſe of Gaur; being, as already-mentioned, a mere elongation of the mountains of Mazendran paſſing to the N. E. and terminating not far from Meſhid, being well delineated by D'Anville under the names of Sahar Turok, Laſſi-Topan, and Mian Koh, none of which paſs the river Tedjen, or Ochus. The river Morgab ſprings from the mountains of Gaur, which on the E. of Herat bend towards the N. forming the range called Lokman by D'Anville, which terminates to the S. of the greater Meru; and the deſert of Karakum prevents the extenſion of mountainous ranges in this quarter.

This diſcuſſion ſufficiently evinces the miſtake of the ancient geographers who extended their ſuppoſed range of Taurus throughout Aſia, inſtead of Aſia Minor: and if we muſt violently include the Caucaſus, whoſe grand ſummits are on the N. of the Euxine, under that appellation, it ſtill terminates in Coraſan. If, on the other hand, the Taurus be continued by a ſuppoſed chain to that of Elwend, it would terminate in the great central deſert, or at the mouth of the Perſian

Perſian gulph. As the geographers of antiquity paid particular attention to the ranges of mountains, without which indeed the ſcience itſelf becomes an empty name, and hiſtory, natural or civil, can never be properly explained or underſtood, an inveſtigation of this curious topic will not, it is hoped, be deemed unneceſſary. The marches of Alexander, and other claſſical topics, have alſo recommended the mountains of Perſia to particular conſideration; while ſome degree of prolixity unavoidably ariſes from the obſcurity of the ſubject, and the imperfection of the materials. Mountains.

Nor muſt the deſerts be paſſed in complete ſilence though few words may ſuffice. On the eaſt of the Tigris, lat. 33° a conſiderable deſert commences, which is pervaded by the river of Ahwaz, and extends to the N. of Shuſter, but D'Anville has ſpread it too far to the E. This deſert may be about 140 B. miles in length E. to W. and the breadth about 80. In his map of ancient geography D'Anville has omitted this deſert, which ſeems indeed unknown to claſſical authority. It is now chiefly poſſeſſed by the wandering tribe of Arabs called Beni Kiab, a people who, like the deſert, are not a little obſcure." Deſerts.

The Great Saline Deſert extends from the neighbourhood of Kom to that of the ſea of Zurra, in a line from E. to W. of about 400 B. miles: the breadth from N. to S. may be 250; but in the latter quarter it may be ſaid to join with the great deſert of Kerman by the Nauben Dejian, which extends about 350 miles. Theſe two extenſive deſerts may thus be conſidered as ſtretching N. W. and S. E. for a ſpace of about 700 miles, by a medial breadth of about 200, (even not including in the length other 200 miles of the deſert of Mekran,) thus interſecting this wide empire into two nearly equal portions, as before explained. This vaſt extent is impregnated with nitre, and other ſalts, which taint the neighbouring lakes and rivers; but its natural hiſtory has not been inveſtigated with the preciſion of modern knowledge. In the S. of Mekran and towards the Indus are other deſerts of great extent.

A third great deſert, that of Karakum, or the Black Sand, forms the northern boundary of Coraſan and modern Perſia; but the deſcription

" See Niebhur, but this tribe ſeems rather to the S. of the deſert.

Deserts. more properly belongs to Tatary. The defert of Margiana is placed by Ptolemy on the N. W. of Aria; but it is not eafy to explain his pofitions or reconcile them with modern geography. D'Anville fuppofes, with probability, that Margiana derived its name from the river Margus, or Morgab; in which cafe this defert may be in the neighbourhood of Badkis.

Forefts. The Perfian forefts are unhappily reftricted to a few fpots in Corafan; the mountains of Mazendran and Ghilan, and thofe towards Kurdiftan. But timber is chiefly fupplied by Mazendran, which thence receives a name fignifying the land of axes.

Botany. An accurate account of the indigenous vegetables of Perfia yet remains a defideratum in the fcience of Botany: the productions of the eaftern and fouth eaftern provinces are almoft wholly unknown to us, and the flight acquaintance that we have with thofe on the fhores of the Caſpian, and the frontiers of Ruffia, is almoft entirely derived from the fhort and imperfect notices that occur in the travels of Pallas and Gmelin in the neighbourhood of the Caſpian.

A conſiderable portion of the Perfian territory, efpecially on the fide of great Tatary, appears to be occupied by falt deferts: thefe are for the moft part deftitute of trees, and fupport hardly any plants, except fuch of the faline fucculent kind as are alfo found on the fea fhore; of thefe the chief are known among botanifts by the names of falfola proftrata, atriplex portulacoides, plantago falfa, and ftatice Tatarica.

Of the high mountains, as far as they have been examined, we are only informed in general that their vegetable inhabitants are for the moft part the fame as thofe obferved on the Alps of Swifferland and Italy: and that a large proportion of thefe are of the cruciform, or tetradynamious order.

The plants of the hills and cultivated parts adjoining the Caſpian fea are better known to us, and from the few whofe names we are already in poffeffion of, it is eafy and reafonable to infer the prefence of many more that are ufually obferved to accompany them. On the mountainous ridges are found the cypreſs, the cedar, and feveral other kinds of pines, while the lower hills and fcars of rock are fhaded and adorned with lime trees, oaks, acacias, and chefnuts: the fumach, whofe aſtringent

aſtringent wood is ſo eſſential to the arts of dying and tanning, grows here in vaſt abundance, and the fraxinus ornus, or Manna aſh tree is ſcarcely leſs common. The moſt eſteemed of the cultivated fruits of Europe are truly indigenous in Perſia, and have probably hence been diffuſed over the whole weſt. Theſe are the fig, the pomegranate, the mulberry, the almond, peach, and apricot. Orange trees alſo, of an enormous ſize, and apparently wild, are met with in the ſheltered receſſes of the mountains; and the deep warm ſand on the ſhore of the Caſpian is peculiarly favourable to the culture of the citron, and the liquorice. The vine grows here in great luxuriance, and further to the ſouth both cotton and ſugar are articles of common cultivation. Poplars of unuſual ſize and beauty, and the weeping willow, border the courſe of the ſtreams, and the marſhy tracts abound with a peculiar kind of ruſh that forms the material of the fine Perſian matting. The ornamental ſhrubs and herbaceous plants of this country are but little known, four of them however, from their abundance and beauty, give an air of elegance to the country, eſpecially in the eyes of an European, ſuperior to that of any other region; theſe are the jaſmine, and the blue and ſcarlet anemone in the thickets, and the tulip, and ranunculus in the paſtures. Botany.

According to Chardin the Perſian horſes are the moſt beautiful even in the eaſt; but in ſpeed they yield to the Arabian, which are leſs diſtinguiſhed by elegance of form. The Perſian ſteeds are rather taller than the ſaddle horſes in England; the head ſmall, the legs delicate, and the body well proportioned; of a mild diſpoſition, very laborious, lively, and ſwift. Tatarian horſes are alſo uſed, of lower ſtature, and not ſo well-formed as the Perſian, but more capable of fatigue.[12] Mules are alſo in conſiderable requeſt; and the aſs reſembles the European, but a breed of this animal is brought from Arabia, which is excellent, the hair being ſmooth, the head high, while they move with ſpirit and agility. This valuable race might probably thrive in Europe as well as the other. The dung of horſes, inſtead of being uſed for manure, is dried and employed as litter. The camel is alſo common, but not admitted into the province of Mazendran, where they eagerly Zoology.

[12] iv. 72.

Zoology. eat the leaves of box, though to them a rank poiſon. Camels are exported from Perſia to Turkey, having, according to Chardin, only one hunch, while thoſe of India and Arabia have two. The ſwifteſt muſt be the dromedary of the ancients, as the name imports. The Perſian cattle reſemble the European, except towards Hindoſtan, where they are marked by the hunch on the ſhoulders. Swine are ſcarce, ſave in the N. W. provinces. Of the large tailed ſheep that appendage ſometimes weighs more than thirty pounds, enlarging at the bottom in the form of a heart. The flocks are moſt numerous in the northern provinces of Erivan, or the Perſian part of Armenia, and Balk. The few foreſts contain abundance of deer and antelopes; while the mountains preſent wild goats, and probably the ibex, or rock goat. Hares are common in the numerous waſtes. The ferocious animals are chiefly concealed in the foreſts, as the bear and boar, the lion in the weſtern parts, with the leopard, and, according to ſome accounts, the ſmall, or common tiger. Seals occur on the rocks of the Caſpian. Zimmerman mentions the ounce as known in Mazendran, and the wild aſs in the central deſerts. The hyena and chackal belong to the ſouthern provinces. The ſeas abound with fiſh of various deſcriptions; the Caſpian diſplays ſturgeon, and ſome kindred ſpecies, with a fat and delicious kind of carp. The moſt common river fiſh ſeems the barbell; trouts are only found in Erivan. Chardin obſerves that pigeons are particularly numerous; and the partridges are the largeſt and moſt excellent he ever beheld. The boolbul, or oriental nightingale, enlivens the ſpring with his varied ſong.

The Perſians have been long accuſtomed to tame beaſts of prey, ſo as even to hunt with lions, tigers, leopards, panthers, and ounces.[13] The hunter ſeems to run a riſque of becoming the prey.

Mineralogy. The mineralogy of this extenſive country ſeems neither various nor important, though the numerous mountains probably abound with unexplored treaſures. Chardin aſſures us that there are no mines of gold nor ſilver; but one of the latter metal was attempted in a mountain called Shah-Koh, four leagues from Iſpahan, and abandoned for want of fuel. The lead mines of Kerman and Yezd produce the uſual mixture

[13] Chardin, iv. 94.

of

of ſilver; from which circumſtance the Silver mountains of D'Anville. In the northern provinces there are many mines of iron, but the metal is harſh and brittle. Mines of ſteel ore, or carbonated iron, are alſo wrought in the ſame regions, ſo impregnated with ſulphur, that the filings when thrown on the fire flaſh like gunpowder. Copper is chiefly found in the mountains of Mazendran, and near Caſbin, but is brittle; and commonly mingled by the melters with a twentieth part of the Japaneſe, or Swediſh. Thoſe defects in the metals probably ariſe from want of ſkill. MINERALOGY.

The only precious ſtone yet diſcovered ſeems to be the turkoiſe, which has indeed almoſt ceaſed to be regarded as ſuch, being only bone or ivory tinged with copper. There are two mines of this ſubſtance, one at Niſhapour in Coraſan, and another about four days' journey to the S. of the Caſpian, in the mountain called Feruzkoh. Pearls abound, as is well-known, in the Perſian gulf, eſpecially near the iſles of Bahrin on the Arabian ſide. Some will weigh fifty grains; but thoſe are eſteemed large which weigh from ten to twelve grains. This valued product is by the Turks and Tatars called *Margion*, ſignifying a globe of light; from which, or the Perſian name *Mervarid*, "the offspring of light," was derived *Marguerite*, the appellation in ſouthern Europe. The Perſian merchants prefer the emeralds of Egypt, which they call Zmerud Aſvani, from the town of Aſvan, to thoſe of Peru: but Chardin, a jeweller, ſuſpects that theſe emeralds were only imported into Egypt, as well as the carbuncle, which he ſuppoſes to have been a high coloured ruby; while the *yacut*, latinized *jacinth*, is a brown ruby from Ceylon. But he errs widely when he imagines that the ruby called *balais* came from Balacchan, a name which he aſcribes to Pegu; while in fact it is the product of the mountains of *Balaſcia*, or Balk, as Marco Polo has long ago informed us. A late intelligent traveller in Perſia ſays that among the articles ſold in the bazars of Iſpahan are diamonds of Golconda; rubies, topazes, and ſapphires of Pegu; emeralds of Said, which is the upper part of Egypt, or the Thebais: and Ballay rubies from Bedakſhan, a country between the rivers Gihon and Margab, which alſo produces lapis lazuli, amianthus, and rock cryſtal.[14]

[14] Otter, i. 208.

Mineralogy. Thus the high mountains of Belur Tag, and perhaps Hindoo Koh, are the peculiar feats of the Balay ruby; a circumſtance which identifies the Balaſcia of Polo; while his Belur is the whole Alpine tract of the mountains ſo called.

Chardin adds that ſulphur and nitre are found in the mountain of Demavend, which he places on the ſouth of Hyrcania or Mazendran. Sometimes whole deſerts are covered with ſulphur, and others with ſalt, which near Caſhan is remarkably pure. Rock ſalt is found near Iſpahan; and in the dry climate of Kerman, if our author be credited, it is even employed in building. Free ſtone, marble, and ſlate, are chiefly from Hamadan. Near Tauriz is found what he calls a marble, tranſparent, like rock cryſtal, through tables of an inch in thickneſs, of a white colour mingled with pale green, probably a kind of jad: in the ſame region is alſo found lapis lazuli, but not ſo fine as that of Tatary. Towards the Tigris there are pools of bitumen, or rock tar, while naphtha abounds near Baku. In Erivan and Fars are mines of talc; and of a pure white marl uſed like ſoap. What is called *mummia* is found in Coraſan, and in the deſerts of Kerman, deriving its name from the Perſian word *moum*, ſignifying wax, gum, ointment. It was ſuppoſed to proceed from the human body; but according to Chardin is a ſingular gum which diſtils from rocks; and the mines of this precious maſtic, as he calls it, are carefully ſealed for the royal uſe. It is probably a kind of aſphaltum; but ſeems a variety which has eſcaped modern mineralogiſts.

Mineral Waters. Mineral waters of various deſcriptions abound in this mountainous country; but they are generally alike neglected by the phyſicians and the people.

Natural Curioſities. Among the chief natural curioſities muſt be named the fountains of naphtha, or pure rock oil, in the neighbourhood of Baku, on the weſtern coaſt of the Caſpian, particularly in the adjoining promontory of Abſheron. The adjoining land is dry and rocky, and there are ſeveral ſmall ancient temples, in one of which, near the altar, a large hollow cane is fixed in the ground, and from the end iſſues a blue flame, ſeemingly more pure and gentle than that produced by ardent ſpirits.[15]

[15] Hanway, i. 263.

From

From a horizontal gap in an adjoining rock, about ſix feet long by three broad, there alſo iſſues a ſimilar flame. NATURAL CURIOSITIES.

" The earth round this place, for above two miles, has this ſurprizing property, that, by taking up two or three inches of the ſurface, and applying a live coal, the part which is ſo uncovered immediately takes fire, almoſt before the coal touches the earth: the flame makes the ſoil hot, but does not conſume it, nor affect what is near it with any degree of heat. Any quantity of this earth carried to another place does not produce this effect. Not long ſince eight horſes were conſumed by this fire, being under a roof where the ſurface of the ground was turned up, and by ſome accident took flame.

" If a cane or tube, even of paper, be ſet about two inches in the ground, confined and cloſe with the earth below, and the top of it touched with a live coal, and blown upon, immediately a flame iſſues, without hurting either the cane or paper, provided the edges be covered with clay; and this method they uſe for light in their houſes, which have only the earth for the floor: three or four of theſe lighted canes will boil water in a pot, and thus they dreſs their victuals. The flame may be extinguiſhed in the ſame manner as that of ſpirits of wine. The ground is dry and ſtony, and the more ſtony any particular part is, the ſtronger and clearer is the flame; it ſmells ſulphurous like naptha, but not very offenſive.

" Lime is burnt to great perfection by means of this phenomenon; the flame communicating itſelf to any diſtance where the earth is uncovered to receive it. The ſtones muſt be laid on one another, and in three days the lime is completed. Near this place brimſtone is dug, and naptha ſprings are found.

" The chief place for the black or dark grey naptha is the ſmall iſland Wetoy, now uninhabited, except at ſuch times as they take naptha from thence. The Perſians load it in bulk in their wretched veſſels, ſo that ſometimes the ſea is covered with it for leagues together. When the weather is thick and hazy the ſprings boil up the higher; and the naptha often takes fire on the ſurface of the earth, and runs in a flame into the ſea in great quantities, to a diſtance almoſt incredible. In clear weather the ſprings do not boil up above two or three feet: in boiling over,

Natural Curiosities.

over, this oily ſubſtance makes ſo ſtrong a conſiſtency as by degrees almoſt to cloſe the mouth of the ſpring; ſometimes it is quite cloſed, and forms hillocks that look as black as pitch; but the ſpring, which is reſiſted in one place, breaks out in another. Some of the ſprings which have not been long opened form a mouth of eight or ten feet diameter.

"The people carry the naptha by troughs into pits or reſervoirs, drawing it off from one to another, leaving in the firſt reſervoir the water, or the heavier part with which it is mixed when it iſſues from the ſpring. It is unpleaſant to the ſmell, and uſed moſtly amongſt the poorer ſort of the Perſians, and other neighbouring people, as we uſe oil in lamps, or to boil their victuals, but it communicates a diſagreeable taſte. They find it burn beſt with a ſmall mixture of aſhes: as they find it in great abundance, every family is well ſupplied. They keep it at a ſmall diſtance from their houſes, in earthen veſſels, under ground, to prevent any accident by fire, of which it is extremely ſuſceptible.

"There is alſo a white naptha on the peninſula of Apcheron, of a much thinner conſiſtency; but this is found only in ſmall quantities. The Ruſſians drink it both as a cordial and a medicine, but it does not intoxicate: if taken internally it is ſaid to be good for the ſtone, as alſo for diſorders of the breaſt, and in venereal caſes and ſore heads; to both the laſt the Perſians are very ſubject. Externally applied, it is of great uſe in ſcorbutic pains, gouts, cramps, &c., but it muſt be put to the part affected only; it penetrates inſtantaneouſly into the blood, and is apt for a ſhort time to create great pain. It has alſo the property of ſpirits of wine to take out greaſy ſpots in ſilks or woollens; but the remedy is worſe than the diſeaſe, for it leaves an abominable odour. They ſay it is carried into India as a great rarity, and being prepared as a japan, is the moſt beautiful and laſting of any that has been yet found. Not far from hence are alſo ſprings of hot water, which boil up in the ſame manner as the naptha, and very thick, being impregnated with a blue clay; but it ſoon clarifies. Bathing in this warm water is found to ſtrengthen and procure a good appetite, eſpecially if a ſmall quantity is alſo drunk."[16]

[16] Hanway, i. 263, &c.

The

The juſtly celebrated Kæmpfer had viſited theſe remarkable ſprings in the end of the ſeventeenth century;[17] and Gmelin, in the eighteenth century, 1773, has added little to the account of Hanway, except that the ſoil is a coarſe marl, mixed with ſand, and effervescing with acids. There are many other wells in an adjoining peninſula; and the revenue ariſing from this uncommon product to the khan of Baku was computed at forty thouſand rubles.[18] Natural Curioſities.

The few Perſian iſles in the ſouthern gulf, among which the moſt remarkable are Ormuz, once famous, now abandoned; Kiſhma; and towards the other extremity Karek, from which the Dutch were expelled in 1765, do not merit a particular deſcription in a work of this nature; and far leſs thoſe in the Caſpian ſea, the chief of which are on the coaſt of the Uzbeks. Iſles.

[17] See his Amoen. Exot.

[18] Dec. des Ruſſes, ii. 213.

INDEPENDENT TATARY.

CHAPTER I.

General Observations.

Name.—Chief Diviſions.—Progreſſive Geography.—Connection with Little Bucharia, *and Review of the ancient and modern Geography of that Country.*

THE deſcriptions already given in this volume of Aſiatic Ruſſia and the Chineſe empire, compriſe the far greater part of what geographers denominated Tartary, by a vague term applied to a country exceeding all Europe in extent, and poſſeſſed by various and diſtinct nations and races of men.

By repeated victories over the Eluts and Kalmuks of Mongolia, or, to uſe the German term, Mongoley, the Chineſe dominion has been extended to the mountains of Belur, thus including Little Bucharia: while in the E. Mandſhuria remained ſubject to its ſovereigns, who had become emperors of China. But ſo abſurd is the common appellation of Chineſe Tatary, that not one tribe of Tatars can be ſtrictly ſaid to be ſubject to the Chineſe ſceptre; for the ruling people of Little Bucharia were the Kalmuks, a Mongolian race.

Name. Yet the title here given of Independent Tatary becomes unexceptionable, when confined to the bounds of the preſent deſcription, for the Uzbeks and Kirguſes are of undoubted Tatar origin; and their country muſt ſtill be regarded as independent of the great neighbouring powers, China, Ruſſia, and Perſia.

The extenſive region now under view is highly celebrated, and extremely intereſting on many accounts. The probable ſeat of the moſt

ancient Perſian kingdom, the poſſeſſion of the Greek monarchs of Bactriana, after many revolutions it was diſtinguiſhed by the wide empire of Zingis and Timur, Samarcand being the favourite reſidence and capital of the latter conqueror. This diſtinguiſhed portion of Aſia has alſo given birth to many eminent men of letters, whoſe fame is diffuſed as wide as oriental literature. The moſt ancient Perſian philoſopher, Zoroaſter, is ſaid to have been a native of Bactriana; and, not to mention numerous intervening names, the work of Abulgazi, the ſovereign of Kharizm, or the hiſtory of the Tatars, diſplays no mean induſtry and information. Name.

The extent of Independent Tatary may be meaſured from the Caſpian ſea to the mountains of Belur, a ſpace of not leſs than 870 B. miles. From the mountains of Gaur in the ſouth, to the Ruſſian boundaries on the north of the deſert of Iſſim, may be near 1500 B. miles; but of this length a great part is deſert. Extent.

The chief diviſions are the wide ſtepps or barren plains in the N., held by three hordes of Kirguſes, the Great, Middle, and Leſſer; with ſome ſmall Tataric tribes near the ſea of Aral. This portion was anciently called Weſtern Turkiſtan: the capital being Taraz, on a ſtream which flows into the Sirr or Sihon not far above Otrar, and which was alſo ſometimes denominated Turkiſtan from the name of the country. Before proceeding further it muſt be obſerved in general, that the names in the beſt and moſt recent maps are often derived from Perſian and native geographers, ſo that a modern traveller might perhaps find it difficult to trace them. Diviſions. Turkiſtan.

To the S. of the mountains of Argun the land begins to fertilize, along the courſe of the Sirr, Sirt, or Sihon, the Iaxartes of the ancients, alſo called the river of Shaſh, from the chief territory; and on the banks of its tributary ſtreams, which devolve from the Argun on the N. and the Ak Tau or white mountain on the S., while the river itſelf ſprings from the mountains of Belur. Ilak and Shaſh, the moſt northern provinces on the Sihon, are followed by Fergana, and a diſtrict called Ozruſhna, round a town of the ſame name. Divided from theſe provinces by deſerts and mountains, the kingdom of Kharizm, formerly ſo powerful as to oppoſe the great Zingis, has gradually yielded to the encroaching Ilak, &c.

Extent. croaching desert, and now presents poor remains of Urghenz its capital, the residence of Abulgazi, and Khiva, a small town, but the residence of a khan.

Sogd. To the S. of the range of the Ak Tau appears the fertile region of Sogd, the ancient Sogdiana, with its capital Samarcand; which, with Vash and Kotlan, seems to have constituted the Mawerulnar of oriental geography, implying the country beyond the river Gihon or Oxus. On the S. the provinces of Balk, Kilan, Tokarestan, and Gaur, terminate the bounds of Independent Tatary, here separated by deserts on the W. from the Persian province of Corasan. In general Kharizm on the W. is not considered as a part of Great Bucharia, but this last appellation must be regarded as embracing the whole extent, from the mountains of Argun and sources of the river Ilak, to the confines of Hindostan.

Progressive Geography. In ancient periods Western Turkistan, and the north of the Caspian, were the seats of the Massagetæ; to the S. of whom were the Scythians

Scythians. on this side of the Imaus or Belur Tag. The Scythians beyond the Imaus are described by Ptolemy as restricted to a confined strip of territory on the eastern side of the Imaus, and divided by an imaginary line from the Seres, who were undoubtedly the people of Little Bucharia. But as ancient knowledge here terminated, it is probable that the Scythians beyond the Imaus not only held the eastern ridges of these mountains, as a barbarous race continues to do without molesting the industry of the distant plains, but that they were diffused along the ridge of Alak and the wide region called Geté, extending as far as the mountains of Bogdo, till they were expelled or subdued by more numerous or powerful nations from the east.

As it is now granted by all geographers that the range called Belur Tag represents the Imaus, and that this range runs from N. to S., forming the eastern boundary of Great Bucharia, it will be clear from Pto-

Serica. lemy's description and maps that Serica can be no other country but Little Bucharia, always possessed by an industrious and intelligent race of men. Not only the ridge of Imaus, but the remarkable course of two considerable rivers towards the N. E., while all his other Asiatic streams have very different directions, sufficiently indicate Little Bucharia, in which the rivers correspond with Ptolemy's delineation, the Oe-

chardes being probably the Oránkaſh of modern maps, or perhaps the river of Yarcand; while his Bautiſus may be the river of Koten, or that of Karia. D'Anville has transferred the capital of this country as far eaſt as Kantcheou, which belongs to the Chineſe province of Shenſi, ſtanding on the river Etziné, which he thinks reſembles the Bautiſus of Ptolemy; and he adds that the latitude correſponds with that of Ptolemy's Sera; a cogent argument, no doubt, while all that author's longitudes and latitudes in eaſtern Aſia are completely erroneous! It is truly ſurpriſing that this able geographer ſhould thus infer that the ancients had paſſed the great deſert of Cobi, or had diſcovered China by land, without the ſmalleſt acquaintance with Tibet. The plan of the learned Goſſellin reſtricted him to purſue only the ſea coaſts, but he expreſſes his opinion that Sera muſt not be placed at ſo great a diſtance to the eaſt.[1] It has already been ſhewn that the numerous, and almoſt inacceſſible, mountains of Weſtern Tibet have prevented even the moderns from acquiring a juſt knowledge of that country, which, from the ſame unavoidable cauſe, was totally unknown to the ancients; and there is no region but Little Bucharia which can correſpond to Ptolemy's Serica.

The connection between the two Bucharias has occaſioned the introduction of this diſquiſition here, where it ſeemed that the ſubject would appear more clear and connected than if a part only had been conſidered in the account of Chineſe Tatary. It is to be lamented that the details concerning Little Bucharia are ſo imperfect, that few compariſons can be inſtituted between the modern names and ſituations and thoſe of Ptolemy, whoſe knowledge does not appear to have extended further than 80° from Greenwich. D'Anville ſuppoſes that the mountains of Annabi are thoſe of Altai; but they are clearly thoſe of Alak (called by ſome Muſart) on the N. of Little Bucharia. His towns of Auzacia, Iſſedon, &c. &c. it might perhaps be vain to trace in the ſpeedy declines and changes of Aſiatic towns, even if we poſſeſſed ample and accurate maps of Little Bucharia. The mountains on the S. correſpond with the chain of Mus Tag, or the Mountains of Ice on the

[1] Geog. des Grecs. Anal. p. 132.

N. of

Progressive Geography.

N. of Tibet; and his metropolis of Serica is perhaps Kereja or Karia, not far from theſe mountains. It is probable that ſmall branches ſpreading from the Mus Tag towards the N. are the Caſius, (perhaps in the neighbourhood of the town and lake of Kas,) the Thagurus, and Aſmirei, of Ptolemy.* But a more full illuſtration of this point would be better adapted to ancient geography. Suffice it here to obſerve, that till the learned labours of D'Anville illuſtrated the actual geography of theſe regions, a ſimilar obſcurity prevailed even in that of Greater Bucharia; not a century having yet expired ſince the real form of the Caſpian ſea, and even the exiſtence of that of Aral, became known in Europe. Nay it is deeply to be regretted that even now the geography of theſe regions is chiefly conjectural, and founded on the dubious longitudes and latitudes of oriental geographers, unaccuſtomed to the preciſion required in modern obſervations.

Modern Geography.

As few materials will ariſe for a deſcription of the preſent ſtate of Independent Tatary, a country exceeding the German empire in extent, it may not be unintereſting to offer ſome obſervations on the modern geography of this country, which, to the diſgrace of ſcience, remains in a wretched ſtate of imperfection.* The natural and unavoidable connection between the ancient Scythias on both ſides of the Imaus, and in later times between weſtern and eaſtern Turkiſtan, Great and Little Bucharia, will authorize and demand ſome previous acquaintance with the latter country, though recently ſubjugated by the Chineſe, and briefly included in the deſcription of that empire.

Little Bucharia.

The north-weſtern province of China, called Shen-ſi, preſents a remarkable diſtrict, narrow, but of conſiderable length, extending like a promontory between the great deſert on the N. E. and the Eluts of Koko Nor on the S. W. The great wall is here low, and rudely conſtructed of turf or hardened clay. At the furtheſt extremity, and juſt within the wall, ſtands the town of Su-teuſh, followed by the city of Kant-cheou, which has been choſen by D'Anville for the capital of Se-

* That of eaſtern Tatary, or the country E. of Hami, may be conſidered as ſufficiently authenticated, not only by the Chineſe atlas and Ruſſian maps, but by numerous travels of the jeſuits publiſhed by Du Halde.

rica.

rica. Theſe parts formerly belonged to the kingdom of Tangut, being a modern addition to China. MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

Beyond theſe parts, which are the firſt approached by the caravans, ſeveral rivers, lakes, towns, and ſtations, are laid down in the maps by the jeſuits, of which there is no account in the voluminous work of Du Halde; as the river Etziné, with the towns of Ouey-yuen and Chao-maing; and the lakes Sopou and Souhouc. To the W. runs another conſiderable river, the Polonkir, near which is the city of Shacheou, where the river runs into a lake called Hara Nor, or rather Kara Nor, the black lake.

It is ſufficiently ſingular that while a particular account is given of the region of Hami or Chamil,[2] yet there is no deſcription of theſe intervening countries; and though the geography and maps of China itſelf be excellent, ſtill the moſt ſkilful entertain great doubts concerning thoſe of Mongolia, as well as of Tibet. In the table of longitudes and latitudes, at the end of Du Halde, Hami is placed in 42° 53′, long. 22° 23′ W. of Pekin; but none appears of the other names above mentioned, and it is probable they are only laid down from doubtful itineraries. Major Rennell has expreſſed a ſuſpicion that the maps are erroneous concerning the countries between Great Bucharia and China, which he ſuppoſes to recede in them too much from Great Bucharia towards China;[3] but when he infers, in the preceding page, that the city of Caſhgar ſhould be removed ſeveral degrees to the N. W., near Shaſh, he forgets the difficulties that will ariſe in arranging ſeveral itineraries, and the doubts whether Caſhgar itſelf be not merely another name of Yarcand, derived from the kingdom, as the city of Caſhmir is only another name for Sirinagur.* However this be, it is probable that there is ſome confuſion

[2] Du Halde, iv. 31. [3] Memoir, 198.

* Petis de la Croix, intimately acquainted with oriental geography, informs us, in his notes to the hiſtory of Timur, that Caſhgar is only another name for Yarcand, which laſt alone is mentioned in recent accounts as the capital of Little Bucharia. Abulfeda ſays that the town of Caſhgar is alſo called Ardukand, which implies that it is the ſame with Yarcand.

But this idea ſeems completely overturned by the letter of the Chineſe general, who conquered Little Bucharia in 1759, to the Emperor, a tranſlation of which is publiſhed by the abbé Groſier, in his General Deſcription of China, i. 183, where he refers to the Hiſtoire Generale de la Chine, tome xi., for an account of this remarkable war. From this letter it is evident that Haſhar or Caſhgar

Modern Geography.

confuſion in the jeſuitic maps, in which Hami is put at ninety leagues from the Chineſe wall, while Goez ſays that he travelled the ſpace in nine days, which on this calculation can ſcarcely equal that length, as thirty miles a day ſeems too much for a caravan, eſpecially when we conſider that twenty days are occupied in travelling from Chaliſh, alſo called Olug Yulduz or Great Yulduz, to Puchan, not far from Turfan, a ſpace which in our maps does not occupy above half the extent between Hami and the Chineſe wall.[4] If the numbers be not corrupted in the account of Goez, our maps are here ſtrangely erroneous. Is it not probable that ſimilar errors may prevail towards the ſouth, where the river Polonkir, &c. may be too much approximated to China? May not Shacheou be the ſame with the Siartiam of Polo, or Sertem, while the black lake correſponds with Cas Nor? but the itinerary given in the jeſuitic map of Tibet militates againſt this opinion, which muſt remain dubious till a more preciſe inveſtigation.

Equal doubts prevail concerning the ſouth of Little Bucharia, where the ſandy deſert of Cobi has been extended to the weſt, even to the northern ſnowy mountains of Tibet; which, by a ſingularity unknown to any range of that nature, are ſuppoſed to emit no rivers from their northern ſides. It has on the contrary been ſhewn, in the account of Tibet, that this country extends for more than a month's journey to the N. E. of Caſhmir; ſo that its northern mountains are the Mus Tag, or Mountains of Ice, in the Ruſſian maps, which ſend forth numerous

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Caſhgar is a diſtinct city from Jerkim or Yarcand. Two Portugueſe jeſuits were employed to take a map of theſe countries; and if a copy were remitted to Europe it might prove a valuable acceſſion to geography.

The Chineſe general ſays there are about 60,000 families in the diſtrict of Haſhar, by which he ſeems to imply Little Bucharia, with 17 cities and 1600 villages and hamlets. The city of Haſhar is diſtant from Su-cheou, the moſt N. W., town of China, about 600 leagues, (this exceeds the ſpace in our maps by about 300 miles, and ſeems to confirm the Ruſſian geography,) and is about a league in circumference, but the families were only 2500. To the E. of Haſhar are Ouchei (the Ukz of Iſlenieff, the Utſchferment of Strahlemberg) and Akſou; and to the W. of Haſhar is Antchien, the Adſhian of Iſlenieff, on a river which joins the Sirr not far from its ſource; but the cities between them are unknown to our maps. "Haſhar is to the north of Jerkim; between them lie two cities and two villages, which, together, contain almoſt 4400 families." The ſoil is repreſented ſo poor as only to yield five for one. The whole letter is extremely curious and intereſting, and ſuch as an intelligent Engliſh or French General might have written.

[4] See the Collection of Aſtley, vol. iv.

ſtreams

ſtreams into ſouthern Bucharia.* In his learned map of Aſia, D'Anville has placed between Tibet and Little Bucharia the country of Turk-Hend, or perhaps Turk-Hind, being that country of the Turcomans which bordered upon Hind or Hindoſtan, in which laſt Tibet may have been laxly included. The ſouthern part of Little Bucharia contains ſeveral large provinces, as Koten and Kereja or Karia, ſo called from their capital cities; and the intelligent Strahlenberg has denominated Koten a kingdom, and inſerted ſeveral names of rivers and towns.

The weſtern and northern parts of Little Bucharia are known with far more accuracy from various accounts, and from the maps of D'Anville and Iſlenieff. To avoid the difficulties of ſandy deſerts, rendered almoſt impaſſable by broken rocks, the caravans proceed to Hami by a circuit to the north; where, at the bottom of the mountains of Alak, which afford ſome protection from the piercing cold, ſtand the cities and towns of Little Bucharia, in all its features one of the moſt ſingular regions in the world. In ſome inſtances Iſlenieff appears to have copied D'Anville; but in general his map is new, and more authentic; for example in the ſhape of Lok Nor, and the rivers flowing into it, with that of Bulanghir on the eaſtern ſide.† The largeſt river, that of Yarcand, is repreſented as paſſing through the deſerts, nearly in a ſtraight line, of not leſs than 730 verſts, or about 500 Engliſh miles, but this uniform courſe through a rocky deſart is one of the problems of Bucharian geography.

* Iſlenieff ſays, in the ſhort memoir of his map, (4 pages 4to.) "Les montagnes indiquées au bas de la carte par le nom de Mouſtagh, ſont celles qui forment la frontiere ſeptentrionale de l'Inde, et produiſent les ſources du Gange et de l'Inde." From this memoir we learn that the country of the Kalmuks is laid down from plans by Ruſſian engineers; but ſome other parts from the Chineſe maps, that is Du Halde's atlas.

† There is vehement reaſon to ſuſpect that this *Bulanghir* is the *Polonkir* of the jeſuitic maps, which would confirm the ſuſpicions before expreſſed; but in this caſe Hara Nor muſt be the ſame with Lok Nor. Major Rennell's idea would be confirmed, as to this part being placed too near to China; and the country between Koko Nor and Hami muſt be filled by the deſert of Cobi, which certainly paſſes between Hami and China. Du Halde, iv. 31. Rennell ſays that the Ruſſian maps extend their longitude 4 or 5 degrees too far to the eaſt; but if Hara Nor be Lok, the jeſuits have erred by about 3½ degrees of longitude, which in lat. 42° is about 157 miles, a trifle indeed in the wide expanſe of Aſia. By D'Anville's map from the jeſuits Hara Nor is 111° 30′ from Ferro, while he coincides with Iſlenieff in placing Lok about 108°.

Towns. The chief towns, by all accounts, are Caſhgar and Yarcand, followed towards the N.E. by Axu or Akſu; Chialiſh, alſo called Yulduz, and by the Turks Karaſhar or the black city ;* and Turfan. Hami or Camil, with its ſurrounding villages, is rather conſidered as a detached province, for ſome ages under the protection of China. The names of many other towns may be found in the Travels of Goez, who proceeded N. from Cabul to Balk; and after a long journey in that direction paſſed the mountains of Imaus, and arrived by Tanhetar and Yakonith at Yarcand.

Hiſtory. Little Bucharia was ſubject to the Kalmuks, who were recently conquered by the Chineſe. In more ancient times, as already explained, it was the country of the Seres; but little known till the time of Zingis, after whoſe death it became the portion of his ſon Zagathai, and appears, with Great Bucharia, to have been called by his name; which was, however chiefly reſtricted to Great Bucharia, while the other was ſtyled Caſhgar. It was conſidered as a part of Moguliſtan, or Mongolia; and the northern provinces belonged to the country of Geté, in which, to the N. E. of Turfan, were the ancient habitations of the Eygurs or Ugurs, a Finniſh race who ſpread diſmay throughout Europe in the tenth century, and afterwards ſettled in Hungary. The ſtate of this country in the time of Timur may be ſeen in the hiſtory of that prince, a deſcendant of Zagathai; and this race appears to have continued till 1683, when the Eluts or Kalmuks conquered Little Bucharia.† The late wiſe and benevolent emperor of China, Kiang Long, or Chen Lung, had imitated his predeceſſor in repeated viſits to Mongolia, in order to overawe the Kalmuks, the moſt dangerous neighbours of the

* Strahlenberg tells us that Chialiſh is the ſame with Yulduz, and ſo de la Croix, ii 56, and no travels nor deſcription will permit the latter city to correſpond with Oramſhi, an opinion which D'Anville ſeems to have adopted in his Aſia, 1751, but abandoned in his ancient geography, 1769. Akſu, in the time of Timur, had three ſtrong caſtles, and was full of Chineſe merchants. Cherif. iii. 216, where the reader will find a curious campaign in Little Bucharia. The mountain Carangoutac ſeems to be the Mus Tag, not the Belur.

† To the Dutch edition of Du Halde's atlas, 1737, there is prefixed an account of Little Bucharia, chiefly occupied by a detail of that revolution. An account of this country had appeared at Cologne 1723 (perhaps the ſame). By the induſtrious compiler of Aſtley's voyages it is ſaid to have been written by Bentink, who wrote the curious notes on Abulgazi; but by far the moſt complete account of this country is given in the fourth volume of Aſtley's collection, the beſt of that kind ever publiſhed, and which gave riſe to the French Hiſtoire generalle des Voyages.

empire,

empire, by the diſplay of ſuperior power. In 1759 he completely vanquiſhed theſe people, whoſe Contaiſh, or Great Khan, uſed to reſide at Harcas, upon the river Ili; and thus annexed a vaſt territory to his dominions, while he is doubtfully ſaid to have advanced as far as Badakſhan in the S. of Great Bucharia. But he did not chooſe to provoke the jealouſy of Perſia, or Ruſſia, by extending the limits of the empire beyond the mountains of Belur. It is however aſſerted that the great horde of Kirguſes has paid homage to China. Independently of the regions to the north, the extent of Little Bucharia, as it is abſurdly named, from the confines of Hami to the mountains of Belur, is more than 1000 B. miles; and the breadth, from the mountains of Tibet to thoſe of Alak, more than 500. History.

The prevailing religion is the Mahometan, for the Kalmuk conquerors, though they retained their idolatry, were tolerant. The government was adminiſtered by a Khan, and afterwards by the Contaiſh of the Kalmuks, who appointed officers acting as magiſtrates. The population cannot be extenſive,* and is ſuppoſed chiefly to conſiſt of original Bucharians, who are deſcribed as of a ſwarthy complexion, though ſome be very fair and of elegant forms. They are ſaid to be polite and benevolent, and their language is probably that called the Zagathaian, which is the ſame with the Turkiſh, that ſpeech having ſupplanted their native tongue; which, if they be deſcended from the Seres, would be a curious topic of inveſtigation. For that the chief population is original ſeems to be allowed, though there be a great mixture of Tatars, or Turcomans, and a few Kalmuks.† The dreſs of the men does Religion. Manners.

* The account in Du Halde's atlas bears that the Contaiſh could raiſe 20,000 men from this province, taking only one man from ten families. Hence 200,000 families, which may yield a population of one million.

† The learned Jeniſch gives a ſpecimen of Turkiſh and Zagathay, which proves them to be the ſame; and he finds very little difference between the modern Turkiſh and the dialect of Crim Tatary. In pure Turkiſh all infinities end in *mak*, or *mek*; the conſtruction of the language is ſufficiently ſimple; ablatives are formed by adding *den*, plurals by adding *ler*, whether the nominative be a word originally Turkiſh, or borrowed from the Arabic, or Perſian. (From a Letter of that great orientaliſt, Sir William Ouſeley, to the Author.)

Mr. Wilford tells us (Aſ. Reſ. vi.) from the report of Mogul Beg, probably a Mahometan merchant, that the traders who travel regularly from Caſhmir, Nurpoor, &c. to Yarcand, aſſert

MANNERS. does not reach below the calf of the leg, with girdles like the Poliſh. The female raiment is ſimilar, with long ear-rings, like thoſe of Tibet: the hair is alſo worn in very long treſſes, decorated with ribbons. They tinge their nails with henna. Both ſexes wear trowſers with light boots of Ruſſia leather. The head dreſs reſembles the Turkiſh. The houſes are generally of ſtone, decorated with ſome Chineſe articles. They follow the cuſtom of the times of chivalry, in throwing off all clothing when they go to ſleep; are cleanly in their food, which often conſiſts of minced meat; and like the Ruſſians they preſerve their victuals frozen for a conſiderable time. Tea is the general drink. The wives are purchaſed; and the ceremonies of marriage, &c. differ little from thoſe of other Mahometans, the Mullahs, or prieſts having great influence. They have ſmall copper coins; but weigh gold and ſilver like the Chineſe, with whom they maintained a conſiderable commerce before the Kalmuk invaſion, and which is now probably more productive than ever by their union under the ſame ſovereign. They are not warlike; but uſe the lance, ſabre, and bow, while the rich have coats of mail.* The country is very productive of many kinds of fruits, and particularly wine. They are ſaid to have many mines of gold and ſilver, but neither the natives nor Kalmuks had ſuf-

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that the inhabitants of the *countries between Ladac and Yarcand* uſe the Turcoman language, till within a few days of Yarcand, where the Kalmuk prevails. In the Turcoman *Ac* ſignifies white; and *Cara* black.

They meet at Ladac, whence they travel the greateſt part of the way along the Indus, which riſes in the mountains to the N. W. of Yarcand, (query S. W.) then running ſouth it comes within two days of Ladac, where, ſuddenly turning to the weſt, it takes an immenſe ſweep towards Saighur, probably the Sheker of the maps, where it changes its courſe towards the confines of India.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Wilford did not give us more information of this kind, inſtead of antiquarian reveries.

* M. Bentink, the learned author of the notes on Abulgazi's work, informs us, p. 810 and 811, that the natives of Great and Little Bucharia are a peculiar race, by the Tatars called Tadſiks, or Citizens; and are an elegant people with black eyes, aquiline noſes, and pleaſing countenances, totally different from the Tataric; the women being tall, well made, and beautiful. They ſubſiſt by handicrafts and commerce, in which they are unmoleſted by the Uzbeks and Kalmuks, the Bucharian merchants crowding to China, Hindoſtan, Perſia, and Siberia. They never handle arms, whence they are deſpiſed by the Tatars, to whom each town and village pays a regular tribute: nor are they divided into tribes, like the wandering nations of the eaſt.

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ficient ſkill to work them: on the melting of the ſnows abundance of gold is found in the torrents, which they carry to China, and even to Tobolſk in Siberia. Precious ſtones, and even diamonds, are alſo found; and one of the products is muſk, probably from the ſouthern mountains near Tibet, in which laſt country the animal abounds. In contradiction to the uſual courſe of nature, the ſouthern part bordering on the vaſt Alps of Tibet is colder than the northern, which is protected by the inferior ridge of Alak. As the dreſs is chiefly cotton it is probable that the plant abounds in the country, though from their proximity to China the Seres may eaſily have handed ſilk to ancient Europe.* MANNERS.

Such are the chief particularities concerning this intereſting country to be collected from the accounts above quoted. Dr. Pallas, in his travels in Ruſſia, gives ſome idea of Bucharian commerce, in deſcribing the city of Orenburg.[5] But as he joins the Bucharians with the people of Khiva, he probably implies Greater Bucharia. He ſeems to mention raw ſilk as a product of the country, as well as lamb ſkins of a remarkable fine kind, and the hair of camels.†

* Marco Polo ſpecially informs us that the province of Peim produced ſilk in abundance, "abundant bombyce." Lib. i. Cap. xlii.

[5] Dec. Ruſſ. iii. 123.

† He obſerves that, before the Chineſe conqueſt, the Kalmuks could muſter an army of 50,000, their territories extending from the lake of Balcaſh, or Palkati to the mountains of Bogdo, which unite thoſe of Altai, and Alak, and ſerved as a frontier againſt the Monguls, peculiarly ſo called. On the ſouth their power reached over the towns of Bucharia as far as Chochar; but their chief habitations were near the Palkati and river Ili, and towards the ſources of the Irtiſh, in the angle formed by the mountains of Alak and Altai. This country is by the Ruſſian writers generally termed Soongaria. In another paſſage (v. 422) he informs us that the beſt rhubarb was brought to Kiachta, one of the Ruſſian ſtaples with the Chineſe, by a Bucharian merchant called Abdulalam of the city of Selin, ſituated S. W. of Koko Nor towards Tibet, (perhaps Sinin, E. of Koko Nor,) and he adds, that this and other towns of Little Bucharia, as Caſhgar, Yarcand, and Otrar, are under the Chineſe domination. It is truly ſurpriſing that ſo intelligent a writer ſhould have been ſo ignorant of geography. But as it thus appears that the people of Little Bucharia ſupply the beſt rhubarb, it is to be inferred with probability that it grows in the S. E. part of that country.

CHAPTER II.

Description of Independent Tatary.

Kirguses.—Stepp of Iſſim.—Hords —Number.—Manners —Dreſs.—Trade.—Hiſtory.—Kharizm.—Name.—Khiva.—Trade.—Great Bucharia.—Nephthalites.—Extent and Boundaries.—Hiſtory.—Religion.—Manners and Cuſtoms.—Provinces.—Cities.—Manufactures.—Climate.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Mineralogy.—Character of the People.

Kirguses. ABOUT one half of Independent Tatary is occupied by the Kirguſes in the north, a people alſo called Kaizaks, and of undoubted Tataric origin, whence they ſeem to live in perfect amity with their ſouthern brethren, the Uzbeks.

Stepp of Iſſim. The great ſtepp, or deſert of Iſſim, divides theſe Kirguſes from Siberia. This ſtepp is interſected by a river of the ſame name; and there are other ſtreams which join that river, are loſt in the ſands, or fall into extenſive lakes, for the moſt part either ſaline or bitter.[1] Even the ſoil is impregnated with ſalt or nitre, which Pallas ſuppoſes to proceed from the ranges of ſecondary mountains, which extend along the river till it join the Irtiſh. A more conſiderable chain ſtretches from the river Yaik, or Ural, towards the Altaian range, called the mountains of Algedym Zano. The mountains of Ural, otherwiſe called thoſe of Aral, or eagles, though they chiefly bend S. W. detach ſome branches towards the ſea of Aral.* On the eaſt the great chain of Altai may be conſidered as beginning with Uluk Tag, or the Great Mountain, towards which a route of General Bentam is delineated in Arrowſmith's map of Aſia, while the Kiſik Tag, or Little Mountain, runs S. towards the Palkati lake, which is alſo called that of Tengis,

[1] Dec. Ruſſ. iv. 456. Pallas calls it the ſtepp of Iſett.

* Pallas, ib. p. 74, ſays that the Uralian chain terminates, in the ſouth, in ſecondary hills, ſome ſtretching W. others S. to the ſea of Aral, and ſome E. towards the Altaian chain.

and Balcaſh. When Pallas viſited this ſtepp, in 1771, the Ruſſians were improving the fortified line on the north of this deſert, which is remarkable for proceeding through a ſeries of ſmall ſaline lakes. This extenſive plain muſt not however be regarded as a mere deſert, deſtitute of all vegetation; and it is ſaid that many ancient tombs occur in its wide expanſe, as well as in the Barabinian ſtepp, between the Irtiſh, and the Ob, which laſt conſiſts of a tolerable ſoil, and preſents ſeveral foreſts of birch, with the appearance of having been formerly a prodigious ſaline marſh. Kirguſes.

On the weſt of the Kirguſes there ſtill remain ſome tribes of Kalmuks, though the greater part migrated from the Volga in 1770, when they ſought the protection of the Chineſe. The Kirguſes are ſuppoſed to be ſo called from the founder of their hord; and have from time immemorial been here claſſed under three diviſions of Great, Middle, and Leſſer, though quite unknown to Europe till the Ruſſian conqueſt of Siberia, ſome tribes becoming ſubject to that empire in 1606.[2] They are conſidered as faithleſs, puſillanimous, yet reſtleſs; but the Great Hord, defended by mountains on the S. and E., aſſerted their independence in repeated conteſts with the Kalmuks of Soongaria. The Middle and Little Hords have acknowledged the Ruſſian ſovereignty ſince 1731; but this ſubjection is merely nominal, for the Ruſſians are obliged to fortify themſelves againſt theſe allies. Theſe two hords are each eſtimated at thirty thouſand families; and ſuppoſing the Great Hord to contain ſixty thouſand, and each family ſix perſons, the population of this wide region might amount to 720,000; but it probably does not exceed half a million. Hords. Number.

The Kirguſes have gradually moved from the eaſt towards the weſt. Their manners, common to the Tatars, have been deſcribed at conſiderable length by Pallas.[3] Their tents are of a kind of felt; their drink kumiſs, made of acidulated mare's milk, for that of cows is unpleaſant. The Great Hord is conſidered as the ſource of the two others. Being ſettled near the mountains of Alak, alſo called Ala Tau, (and conſidered by the Ruſſians as forming one chain with the Belur, which Manners.

[2] Tooke, ii 78. [3] Dec. Ruſſ. iii. 375.

joins

Manners. joins the mountains of India) this hord has been called the Alatanian Kirguſes.[4] They lead a wandering life, from the borders of the upper Sirr, or Syrt, near Taſhkund, to the ſtepp of Iſſim. Each hord has its particular Khan; but the Middle hord, when Pallas approached this country, was contented with a Saltan, or prince, who ſeemed to acknowledge the Khan of the Leſſer hord: and in 1777 this Khan of the Leſſer hord, whoſe election had been confirmed by Ruſſia, was called Nur Hali, a ſenſible and equitable prince. Their features are Tataric, with the flat noſe and ſmall eyes; but not oblique like thoſe of the Monguls and Chineſe. They have horſes, camels, cattle, ſheep, and goats. It was aſſerted that ſome individuals in the Middle Hord had 10,000 horſes, 300 camels, 3 or 4000 cattle, 20,000 ſheep, and more than 2000 goats: while in the Leſſer Hord were proprietors of 5000 horſes, and a proportional number of the other animals. Their dromedaries furniſhed a conſiderable quantity of woolly hair, which was ſold to the Ruſſians and Bucharians, being annually clipped like that of ſheep. Their chief food is mutton, of the large tailed ſort; and ſo exquiſite is the lamb that it is ſent from Orenburg to Peterſburg for the tables of the palace. The lamb ſkins are the moſt celebrated after thoſe of Bucharia, being damaſked as it were by cloathing the little animal in coarſe linen. But the wool of the ſheep is coarſe, and only uſed in domeſtic conſumption for felts and thick cloths. The ſtepps ſupply them with objects of the chace, wolves, foxes, badgers, antelopes, ermines, weazels, marmots, &c. In the ſouthern and eaſtern mountains are found wild ſheep, *ovis muſimon*, the ox of Tibet, *bos grunniens*, which ſeems to delight in ſnowy alps; with chamoys, chacalls, tigers, and wild aſſes.[5] This variety of animals, enumerated by a good judge of natural hiſtory, not only ſhews the continuity of the range of mountains from Tibet towards the north, but affords a ſpecimen of the treaſures of natural hiſtory, which might be found in the mountains of Bucharia.

Dreſs. As the Kirguſians regard each other as brethren, they are obliged to employ ſlaves, being captives whom they take in their incurſions. Their dreſs is the common Tataric, with large trowſers and pointed

[4] Dec. Ruſſ. iii. 379. [5] Ib. iii. 396.

boots.

boots. A thin veſt ſupplies the place of a ſhirt, and they commonly wear two ſhort robes. The head is ſhaved and covered with a conic bonnet. Their cloaths are numerous and light, ſo that if they fall from horſeback they are ſeldom hurt: their ſaddle horſes are richly ornamented; but their riders are ſhort in ſtature, and their trowſers aſcend to the arm pits, ſo that they reſemble a pair of pantaloons on horſeback. The ladies ornament their heads with the necks of herons, diſpoſed like horns. They appear to be Mahometans, though rather of a relaxed creed. Dress.

The Kirguſians carry on ſome trade with Ruſſia. The chief traffic, which is wholly by exchange, is at Orenburg, but the Middle Hord proceed to Omſk. Sheep, to the amount of 150,000, are annually brought to Orenburg; with horſes, cattle, lambs, ſkins, camels-wool, and camlets; ſometimes they offer ſlaves, Perſians or Turcomans. In return they take manufactured articles, chiefly cloaths and furniture. From Bucharia, Khiva, and Taſhkund, they receive arms and coats of mail, which Ruſſia refuſes, in return for camels and cattle. They are extremely fond of the Kalmuk women, who long retain their form and charms; and often marry them if they will adopt the Mahometan religion. There is an annual feſtival in honour of the dead. About the beginning of the ſeventeenth century this people, who were formerly Shamanians, became children of circumciſion, by the exertions of the prieſts of Turkiſtan; but Pallas, in 1769, found them addicted to ſorceries and other idle ſuperſtitions.* Trade.

Even this barren region, now inhabited by the Kirguſes, has been the ſcene of conſiderable events; and it is not improbable that its nu- History.

* Compare Hanway's Travels in Perſia, i. 239, who mentions Taſhkund as the S. E. boundary of the Kirguſes, thus excluding Fergana. He confirms the account of their Mahometaniſm; and his deſcription of their manners may be compared with that of Pallas. The eaſt ſide of the Aral, which is high and rocky, is inhabited by the Karakulpacks, and other Tatars having a general reſemblance of the Kirguſes. He computes the circumference of the Aral at 1000 B. miles, or thirty-five days' journey. His Jolbart ſeems to approach the royal tiger, if not a Tataric fiction. The narrator gives an account of the old channel of the Oxus, through a valley full of bruſhwood, and knee deep in ſtagnated water: and from p. 90 it appears that the Oxus, or at leaſt a branch of it, formerly ran into the bay of Balkan, while another paſſed north by Urghenz. But it is probable that this large river always extended one or two branches to the ſea of Aral.

In Aſtley's Voyages. iv. 536, this country is called Turkiſtan, being bounded on the ſouth by Kharizm and Great Bucharia.

History. merous deſerts and plains may formerly have been more fertile, at leaſt in paſturage. The gradual deſiccation, obſerved in the ſouthern ſtepps of Siberia, may warrant the concluſion that the hills and plains, on the north of the Caſpian and Aral, anciently preſented more numerous ſtreams and richer verdure. However this be theſe regions have been held by ſucceſſive nations of high repute, from the Maſſagetæ of early times to the Turks. Theſe laſt imparted the name of Turkiſtan, having migrated from their habitations near the mountains of Bogdo, adjoining to thoſe of Altai, or the mountains of gold. In the ſixth century theſe Turks, a grand branch of the Tatars, or Huns, had already ſpread to the Caſpian; while the Eygurs ſeem to have ſucceeded in their original ſeats. They ſoon after ſubdued the people of Sogdiana, and the Nephthalites of Great Bucharia, called in that ignorant age White Huns. As the Turks founded their firſt weſtern ſettlements in the regions now held by the Kirguſes, they thence received the name of Turkiſtan; the capital city being Otrar, and ſometimes Taraz, alſo called Turkiſtan. From this centre of their power iſſued thoſe Turkiſh armies, which have changed the deſtinies of ſo many nations. Little Bucharia was called Eaſtern Turkiſtan from a ſimilar cauſe; but appears to have been firſt ſubdued by the Turks of Cathay on the N. W. of China. The Turks and Huns may be conſidered as one and the ſame Tataric race, totally unknown to Europeans till the appearance of the latter, who firſt paſſed the ſtepps, deſerts, and mountains which had concealed them from claſſical obſervation till the fourth century. The Huns, who appeared about A. D. 375, by their peculiar features impreſſed the writers of the time as a new and unknown race, having ſeemingly paſſed in one courſe of depredation from Aſia to Europe; while the Gothic and Slavonic nations had left many of their ſettlements vacant, in their progreſs into the Roman empire. But the Turks, though originally the ſame people, perhaps warned by the fate of their brethren, made a ſlow and gradual progreſs; and appear to have been mingled by marriages and conqueſts with the Slavonic and Gothic tribes, on the N. and E. of the Caſpian. Such was the origin of the name of Turkiſtan; from which the Turks

ſpread

ſpread deſolation over the moſt beautiful countries of the eaſt, and even threatened the liberties of Europe. HISTORY.

Before proceeding to Great Bucharia, it may be proper briefly to deſcribe the country of Kharizm, which extends from the Gihon or Amu to the Caſpian ſea, bounded on the N. and S. by wide deſerts, the chief town being now Khiva, but anciently Urghenz. This country is about 350 B. miles in length and breadth, and in the time of Zingis was a powerful kingdom, but at that time included Coraſan, and a part of Great Bucharia. As Ptolemy has confounded the courſe of the rivers, and the appearance of the Caſpian, it is difficult here to trace the real poſitions, but D'Anville ſuppoſes that this country was the Choraſmia of antiquity, and he ſuppoſes Coraſan to have been the ſeat of the Parthians. In the tenth century Ebn Haukal calls this country Khuarezm, and ſays that the river Gihon flows into the lake of Khuarezm, while he terms the Caſpian the ſea of Khozr.* As that geographer had travelled in Great Bucharia, there is reaſon to conclude that the river Oxus or Gihon had, in all ages, its chief efflux into the ſea of Aral; and only ſent off inferior branches, in the manner of a delta, into the Caſpian; for it is thus clear that the accounts concerning the recent change of its courſe by the Uzbeks are erroneous; not to mention the improbability that a river, which runs about 850 B. miles, and is fed by ſuch numerous ſtreams, iſſuing from mountains of perpetual ſnow, ſhould become thus inconſiderable. KHARIZM. Name.

The Ruſſian travellers employed by the late empreſs unhappily did not viſit the eaſtern ſhore of the Caſpian, Great and Little Bucharia, and the country of the Kalmuks of Soongaria But as frequent caravans pervade moſt of theſe regions, it is matter of ſurpriſe, as well as of regret, that no European traveller has explored their receſſes, and that their geography remains in ſo imperfect a condition. It ſeems indubitable that in Kharizm, as perhaps in many parts of Perſia, the deſerts have greatly increaſed; and if they proceed from the decompoſition of hills of ſand ſtone, this conſequence muſt unavoidably follow.

* He alſo ſpecially names Coraſan, (Khoraſan, p. 240.) and warns his reader not to confound it with Khuarezm.

Kharizm. We may conclude that the Greeks and Romans were almoſt entirely ignorant of the eaſtern ſhores of the Caſpian, and of the lake of Aral; though from the weſt they had ſome faint accounts of the Volga, and other rivers which flow into the north of that ſea. Hence the encroachments of the deſart on the kingdom of Kharizm cannot be computed from their accounts, but may be eſtimated from the hiſtorians of Zingis and Timur. At preſent this ſtate is almoſt reſtricted to the diſtrict of Khiva, the circuit of which may be performed on horſeback in three days; but there are five walled cities, or rather towns, within half a day's journey of each other.[6] "The khan is abſolute, and entirely independent of any other power, except the Mulla Baſhi, or high prieſt, by whom he is controled. The Kievinſki Tartars differ very little from the Kirgeeſe; but ſurpaſs them in cunning and treachery. Their manners are the ſame, only that the Kirgeeſe live in tents, whilſt the others inhabit cities and villages. Their only trade is with Bokhara and Perſia, whither they carry cattle, furs, and hides, all which they have from the Kirgeeſe and Turkuman Tartārs, who often prove very troubleſome neighbours to them. The place itſelf produces little more than cotton, lamb-furs of a very mean quality, and a ſmall quantity of raw ſilk, ſome of which they manufacture."[7] The ſame author informs us that the town of Khiva ſtands on a riſing ground, with three gates, and a ſtrong wall of earth, very thick, and much higher than the houſes: there are turrets at ſmall diſtances, and a broad deep ditch full of water. It occupies a conſiderable ſpace, and commands a pleaſant proſpect of the adjacent plains, which the induſtry of the inhabitants (he probably means the natives, not the Tatars) has rendered very fertile; but the houſes are low, moſtly built with mud, the roofs flat, and covered with earth.

Khiva.

Urghenz. The city of Urghenz was in ruins, only a moſk remaining. The moſt ſouthern town in the dominions of Khiva is Azariſt, or Hazaraſp, which adjoins to the great deſart called Kara kum, or the Black Sands, for the deſerts of central Aſia are commonly of a black ſand, with which

[6] Hanway, i. 241. The inhabitants are Turcomans and Uzbeks, beſides the *Sarts*, perhaps another name for the Tadjiks. Bentink, p. 515.

[7] Ibid.

the

the river Indus above Attok is impregnated, while thoſe of Africa are red; both colours probably proceeding from a mixture of that univerſal metal, iron, in the particles of quartz, which conſtitute ſand. Khiva.

Khiva is ſaid to ſtand at the diſtance of ſeventeen days from the Caſpian ſea, and from Orenburg thirty-three, computing the day's journey forty werſts.* In 1739 the khan of Khiva aſſembled an army of 20,000, to oppoſe Nadir; but the city ſurrendered at diſcretion.

Pallas informs us that the people of Khiva bring to Orenburg conſiderable quantities of raw cotton.[8] But the coaſts of the Caſpian are held by ſome remains of Turkomans in the north, and by Uzbeks in the ſouth. The bay of Balkan is viſited by Ruſſian veſſels: the iſles yield rice and cotton, and one of them, Naphthonia, a conſiderable quantity of naphtha, the bed ſeeming thus to paſs the ſea from Baku in a S. E. direction; but they are inhabited by Turcoman pirates. A more conſiderable trade is maintained with Mangufhlak, which our maps repreſent as ſtanding at the egreſs of the river Tedjen; but, according to the learned Wahl, that river, and another which flows by Meſhid, are received by an inland lake, the Kamyſh Teſhen, on the S. of the bay of Balkan; a circumſtance which ſeems to be confirmed by the chart of the Caſpian publiſhed by Hanway, in which the mouth of the Tedjen does not appear.† To the N. of the large bay of Balkan are the lake of Karabogas and another inlet, which is followed by the port of Alexander or Iſkander. Trade.

As the merchants of Khiva brought gold and gems to Aſtrakan, probably from the two Bucharias, an idea was ſuggeſted to Peter the Great that theſe precious products were found in Kharizm, and he in conſequence attempted a ſettlement. But the Ruſſians, to the number of 3000, advancing under the command of a Circaſſian prince called

* Equal, by Hanway's account, to 27 B. miles: hence the diſtance of Khiva from the Caſpian would be 459 B. miles, while our maps ſcarcely allow 300. That of Wahl ſeems more agreeable to Hanway's account.

[8] Dec. Ruſſ. iii. 123.

† Wahl, probably after D'Anville, places Mangufhlak far to the north, near the Dead Gulf, in the country of the Mankats, called Karakalpaks by the Ruſſians. The map of Ruſſia, 1787, gives the gulf of Mangufhlak on the north of cape Kalagan. Colonel Bruce can deſerve no credit in oppoſition to all the Ruſſian accounts.

Beckawitz,

Trade. Beckawitz, towards Khiva, were all cut off by the Uzbeks.* It has been ſaid that upon this occaſion theſe Tatars changed the courſe of the Kheſel, which formerly fell into the Caſpian ;[9] but as this river is on the E. of the Gihon, it is clear that it could not paſs that river to join the Caſpian ; and we have already ſeen that the Gihon in the tenth century flowed into the Aral. It is not improbable that, before the deſerts encroached on Kharizm, one or two rivers may have run to the Caſpian from the eaſt ; or perhaps theſe fables may ariſe from one or two ſmall branches of the Amu having joined that ſea. As the larger rivers chiefly belong to Great Bucharia, they are reſerved for the deſcription of that country.

The hiſtory of Kharizm has been ably illuſtrated by its king, or khan, Abulgazi, in his general hiſtory of the Tatars written about 1660. He was born in 1605, and elected khan 1643, after a long impriſonment in Perſia. He died in 1663, revered as an excellent prince, and a man endowed with the rareſt qualities.

Great Bucharia. By far the moſt important part of Independent Tatary is compriſed under the name of Great Bucharia, generally ſuppoſed to have originated from the city of Bokhara, the firſt which the Perſian merchants entered on viſiting the country. It is part of the Touran of the ancient Perſians, and was chiefly known to the Greeks and Romans by the names of Sogdiana and Bactriana ; the former being the Mawer-alnahar, or country beyond the river, of oriental geography ; while Bactriana correſponds with Balk, and thus belongs to Iran, not to Touran. From the ſecond ſon of Zingis it received the name of Zagathai. By the Byzantine hiſtorians the people are called Ephthalites, or corruptly Nephthalites, a name derived from the Oxus or Amu, by the

Nephthalites.

* Hanway, Colonel Bruce, and Bell, all vary in their account of the circumſtances ; and evince how idle it would be to alter maps on the reports of any ſingle traveller.

[9] Aſtley, iv. 477 : but that work, an amazing labour for one man, is not free from miſtakes. See Ebn Haukal, p. 240 - 244, for a curious account of Kharizm in the tenth century, from which it appears that ſtreams or branches ran from the Gihon near Hazaraſp, which probably ended in the ſuppoſed mouths of that river in the Caſpian. He ſays the ſea of Kharizm is 400 miles in circuit, and beſides the Gihon receives the Chaje, that is the river of Shaſh or the Sihon ; p. 265.

Perſians

Perſians ſtyled Abtelah, or the river of gold. Thoſe Byzantine writers, who affect to imitate claſſical language, call the Ephthalites White Huns; as with them all the eaſtern barbarians were Scythians or Huns; whence their accounts require conſtant elucidation from the Chineſe and other oriental memorials, and particularly from the exact account of the nations in northern Aſia, which has been given by Pallas, and other recent travellers. GREAT BUCHARIA.

Great Bucharia extends more than 700 B. miles in length from N. to S., by a medial breadth, if Fergana be included, of about 350, thus rather exceeding Great Britain in ſize, but much inferior to the country called Little Bucharia. The northern boundary appears to be the mountains of Argun; but Iſlenieff ſeems to reſtrict it to the river Syr or Sihon, aſcending however with that river on the N. E, where it borders with Kharizm. On the weſtern ſide a deſart, the river Amu, and other deſarts, divide Bucharia from Kharizm and Coraſan: while on the S. and E. the mountains of Gaur, or Paropamiſus, the Hindoo Koh, and the chain of Belur, are perpetual barriers.* Extent and Boundaries.

The original population of this country was Scythian, like that of Perſia; and the natives are ſtill denominated by the ſame Tataric term of Tadjiks, which the barbarous victors aſſigned to the Perſians. The hiſtory of this celebrated country might be traced from the earlieſt periods, as the ſeat and ſource of the moſt ancient Perſian monarchy, the king being engaged in repeated wars with thoſe of Touran, or the Scythians on this ſide and beyond the Imaus, whoſe queen Thomyris is ſaid to have ſlain Cyrus in battle.† But this region became better known, after the progreſs of Alexander as far as Cojend on the Sirr, inferred with great probability to be the *Alexandria ultima*, and the furtheſt limit of his courſe towards the north. The hiſtory of the Greek monarchy in Bactriana, and of the Grecian colonies in Hindoſtan, may be traced in the learned work of Bayer. After the Mahometan conqueſt of Perſia in History.

* The northern part of this chain is alſo named Terek; and Wahl reſtricts the name of Belur to the middle, while he calls the ſouthern part which joins the Hindu Koh, Alak, or Divlaran, or Siah Humend. Pallas, Dec. Ruſſ. iii. 379, calls this the Alatanian chain, running north from India.

† The Maſſagetæ were a different people, in the plains on the north of the Caſpian.

the

History. the ſeventh century, the hiſtory of this country becomes ſufficiently clear; and the hiſtorians of Zingis and Timur throw a ſteady light, which is continued by Abulgazi. In 1494 Sultan Baber, a deſcendant of Timur, was with his Monguls expelled from Great Bucharia; and proceeding into Hindoſtan, there founded the Mogul power. The Tatarian victors, called Uzbeks, eſtabliſhed a powerful monarchy in Bucharia; and ſucceſſive khans held the ſceptre from 1494 to 1658, ſoon after which period this great and fertile country appears to have been divided into ſeveral dominations, under numerous khans. In 1741 the city of Bokhara, with a ſmall territory around it, conſtituted all the monarchy of one of theſe khans.[10] Nadir firſt diſtinguiſhed himſelf in Coraſan, in combats with the Uzbeks. The province of Gaur, as already mentioned, is ſubject to the kings of Candahar; but Balk and Samarcand appear to remain ſubject to their own Uzbek khans. In the deficiency of recent accounts, it can only be conjectured that the chief powers of this country are the khan of Balk in the S., and of Samarcand in the N.

Religion. The religion of the Uzbeks and Bucharians is the Mahometan of the Sunni ſect, and the government of the khans deſpotic. There is no preciſe evidence of the ſtate of the population, which conſiſts of the Tatars and of the Bucharians. It is probable that upon an emergency an army might be muſtered of 100,000; but though Nadir reduced Bokhara and Khiva, he ſeems to have reſpected Balk and Samarcand, conſidering them as allied ſtates, which furniſhed him with the beſt troops in his army: and he even regarded himſelf as a Tatar, not as a Perſian. There is no ſtatement of the revenue of theſe fertile provinces. From an account publiſhed by Hanway of the revenues of Nadir, it appears that Coraſan yielded half a million ſterling annually, being equal to that of Erivan, and ſuperior to any other Perſian province. It is probable that the revenue of Great Bocharia is at leaſt equal to that of Coraſan. Were the kings of Candahar to form any enterprize againſt our poſſeſſions in Hindoſtan, an alliance with the khans of Bucharia might prove more uſeful than with weſtern Perſia.

[10] Hanway, i. 242.

The manners and cuſtoms of the Uzbeks are ſimilar to thoſe of the other Tatars: but they are ſuppoſed to be the moſt ſpirited and induſtrious of theſe barbarians. Though many reſide in tents in the ſummer, yet in winter they inhabit the towns and villages. They are, however addicted to make ſudden inroads into the Perſian provinces. Thoſe of Balk are the moſt civilized, and carry on a conſiderable trade with Perſia and Hindoſtan. The native Bucharians, or Tadjiks, are comparatively fair; and correſpond, in elegance of form and features, with thoſe of Little Bucharia, whom they alſo reſemble in the mode of dreſs.* The Bucharians, as before mentioned, never bear arms. The Uzbeks, on the contrary, are no ſtrangers to the uſe of the muſket; and it is ſaid that even their women, who ſurpaſs thoſe of the other Tatars in beauty, are not averſe to warfare, but will ſometimes attend their huſbands to the field. The language is Zagathaian, that is Turkiſh or Turkomanic; but that of the Bucharians, a curious topic, has never been inveſtigated, though it be probably Perſian, like their phyſiognomy, but intermingled with Turkiſh, Mongolian, and even Hindoo terms. The literature of Great Bucharia would furniſh an ample theme, Samarcand having been a celebrated ſchool of oriental ſcience, cultivated even by monarchs, as Ulug Beg and others: it was ſtill, in the beginning of laſt century, the moſt celebrated of Mahometan univerſities."

Manners and Customs.

The cities in Great Bucharia generally give name to the provinces, or receive their appellations from them. In the north the province of Fergana appears, from the map of Iſlenieff, to be ſubject to the Kirguſes of the Greater Hord; and of Andegan, its capital, there is no recent account. The other chief provinces are the weſtern part of Shaſh, and a diſtrict called by D'Anville Oſruſhna, from a town of the ſame name.† The moſt fertile and celebrated province is that of Sogd, ſo called from the river which pervades it. Next are Vaſh, Kotlan, and Kilan. Belur is the general name for the Alpine region which divides this country from Little Bucharia; and it ſeems very dubious if there be any town of that name, though Strahlenberg have introduced it into his

Provinces.

* See the prints in Aſtley, iv. 483, and the Perſia of Elzevir.

" Bentinck on Abulgazi, p. 279.

† The Setruſhteh of Ebn Haukal, p. 261, if the name be right.

Provinces. map. Tokareſtan and Gaur are the moſt ſouthern provinces. Marco Polo mentions ſome others, which would require a ſpecial diſſertation to aſcertain; and perhaps the beſt mode of illuſtrating that author would be, without any attention to his progreſs or arrangement, firſt to ſpecify thoſe parts of his chorography which are certain, and then proceed to diſcuſs the other provinces and cities; for either the copies are ſometimes corrupt, or his memory has deceived him in the poſitions, as he happened to viſit them on his route or his return.*

Cities. Samarcand. The chief city of Great Bucharia is Samarcand, on the ſouthern bank of the river Sogd, which, at the diſtance of above a hundred miles, after waſhing the walls of Bokhara, paſſes through a conſiderable lake, and is ſuppoſed to join the Oxus or Amu. Milton has uſed a poetic licence when he ſays

"From Samarchand by Oxus, Temir's throne."

Of this celebrated capital there is no recent account, but it ſeems greatly to have declined ſince the time of Timur, the feſtivities of whoſe court, at his palace here, and villas in the vicinity, have been ſo well deſcribed by his Perſian hiſtorian. Towards the beginning of the laſt century, Bentink ſays that Samarcand was fortified with ramparts of turf, the houſes being moſtly of hardened clay, though ſome were of ſtone, from quarries in the neighbourhood. The khan of Great Bucharia commonly encamped in the adjacent meadows, the caſtle being almoſt ruinous. The excellence of the paper made of ſilk recommended it to all the countries of the eaſt: and it is ſuppoſed that we derive this invention

* His Balacia is doubtleſs the ſouthern part of Balk, from the mountains of Belur to the river Morgab, the region which, as he mentions, produces Balay rubies. The chief city is now Badakſhan. See Otter, and Aſ. Ref. v. 43. But Baſcia, if Vaſh, is to the north; and Cheſimur, undoubtedly Caſhmir, muſt be computed from Balacia, not Baſcia. Vocham was four days' journey N. E. from Balacia, or about 100 miles towards the mountains of Belur, and is perhaps Kotlan. Chaſgar is clearly Caſhgar, after paſſing the Belur alps. The chapter concerning Samarcand ſhould be placed after Baſcia. Karchan ſeems Yarcand, or ſome other city on the W. of Koten (Cotam). Peim or Peyn, and Ciartiam, may, if a former conjecture be allowed, be Payan and Shacheou in the jeſuitic maps. His town of Lop ſtands immediately on the W. of the great deſert five days *backward*, or to the W. of Ciartiam. Here all is confuſion except Cara Lop be implied. The deſert was of thirty days. Sachiou ſeems to be Soutcheou, the firſt town in China. Dr. Forſter, in his Voyages to the North, ſeems often erroneous; but his ideas will be found uſeful by any future inveſtigator.

from

from Samarcand.* The rich vale of Sogd produced ſuch abundance of exquiſite grapes, melons, pears and apples, that they were ſent to Perſia, and even to Hindoſtan. Cities.

Bokhara, on the ſame river, has repeatedly conteſted the metropolitan dignity with Samarcand. When viſited by the Engliſh agents in 1741, it was a large and populous city, ſubject to its khan; ſtanding on a riſing ground, with a ſlender wall of earth; the houſes of clay, but the numerous moſks of brick.[12] The citizens manufactured ſoap and calico; and the chief products were cotton, rice, cattle. From the Kalmuks they received rhubarb and muſk; and from Badakſhan, the capital of a country ſo called, they uſed to receive lapis lazuli, and other precious ſtones; that city being computed at ſixteen days' journey from Bokhara. There was gold and copper coin: and after Nadir took this city, the Perſian and Indian ſilver became common. The inhabitants were civilized, but perfidious. In the tenth century it was diſtinguiſhed by the manufacture of fine linen; and Ebn Haukal adds that there was in the vicinity a mountain called Zareah, which paſſed between Samarcand and Keſh, and thence by the border of Fergana to the confines of Cheen; meaning the Ak Tau, or white mountain. Bokhara.

Balk is a diſtinguiſhed city on the river Dehaſh, which flows into the Amu from the ſouthern mountains of Gaur or Paropamiſus, probably, as in the beginning of the laſt century, ſtill ſubject to its particular khan of the Uzbeks; being then the moſt conſiderable of all their cities, large and populous, with houſes of brick or ſtone; while the caſtle or palace conſiſted almoſt entirely of marble from the neighbouring mountains. This beautiful city was an object of ambition to the neighbouring powers of Perſia and Hindoſtan; but was ſecure, not only from their mutual jealouſy, but from the difficult acceſs through high mountains on one ſide, and deſerts on the other. The people were the moſt civilized of all the Tatars, and beautiful ſilks were prepared from the product of the country, which ſeems then to have included the whole of Great Bucharia to the S. of the Amu, which in this part of its courſe is alſo called the Balk.

* This manufacture is ſaid to have been known A. D. 650. Ouſeley's Ebn Haukal, p. 300. The ſame work may be conſulted for the ſtate of this great city in the tenth century.

[12] Hanway, i. 242.

Cities. Harrat. It is the chief ſeat of the trade between Bucharia and Hindoſtan.

Other Cities. Zouf, which is alſo called Gaur, from the province of which it is the capital, is ſaid to be now ſubject to the kingdom of Candahar; and Bamian, in the ſame province, muſt have ſhared the ſame fate. The latter city was remarkable for numerous images, and other monuments, carved in the adjacent mountains. Anderab is the chief city of Tokareſtan;* near a paſs through the mountains of Hindoo Koh, ſtrictly guarded by the khan of Balk. In the neighbourhood of this city were rich quarries of lapis lazuli, a ſubſtance with which Great Bucharia ſeems chiefly to have ſupplied the ancient and modern world.

Badakſhan. Not far to the north ſtands Badakſhan, on the river Amu or Harrat. In the laſt century this city belonged to the khan of Great Bucharia, or rather of Samarcand; and being ſecluded in a branch of the Belur alps, was uſed as a ſtate priſon for rivals or inſurgents. Badakſhan was ſmall, but well built and populous; and its inhabitants were enriched by the gold, ſilver, and rubies found in the neighbourhood; the grains of gold and ſilver abounding in the torrents which deſcend from the mountains, when the ſnow melts in the beginning of ſummer.[13] Several caravans for Little Bucharia and China paſs by this city; but others prefer the route by Little Tibet, on the eaſtern ſide of the mountains.† Ebn Haukal mentions that there were not only mines of rubies and lazulite near Badakſhan, but that there was abundance of muſk.

Kotlan or Khotlan is the capital of a province ſo called, but otherwiſe ſeems little memorable. Termed, ſituated on the Amu, is ſcarcely known in modern accounts: and in general the northern cities ſeem greatly to have declined under the domination of the Uzbeks.

Manufactures. The chief manufactures have been already mentioned in the account of the cities. Beſides the caravans to Perſia, Hindoſtan, and China, ſome trade is carried on with the Ruſſians, the Bucharian merchants not

* In Ebn Haukal's time it was Taikan, the Taican of Polo, p. 224.

[13] Bentink on Abulgazi, p. 55.

† See the journey of Goez, Aſtley, iv. 644. The paſs to Little Bucharia is thirty-three days' journey to the north, perhaps about the latitude of Andegand or Kojend; but the province of *Sarchil* is a deſideratum in geography.

only

only furniſhing their own products, but others from the eaſtern countries to which they trade. MANUFACTURES.

The climate in general appears to be excellent, the heat even of the ſouthern provinces being tempered by the high mountains capped with perpetual ſnow; and though ſituated in the parallel of Spain, Greece, and Aſiatic Turkey, the proximity of the Siberian deſerts, and the lofty alps, render the ſummer more temperate. The face of the country preſents a great variety; but though there are numerous rivers, hills, and mountains, there ſeems to be a deficiency of wood.* Near the rivers the ſoil is very productive, ſo that the graſs ſometimes exceeds the height of a man; and in ſome parts conſiderable induſtry is ſhewn in the cultivation of rice and other grain. In any other hands but thoſe of the Tatars, this country might rival any European region. Climate.

The chief rivers of Independent Tatary are the Amu and the Sirr. The former is the ancient Oxus, and near its ſource is called the Harrat: oriental geographers alſo term it the Gihoon, as they call the Sirr the Sihoon; but as the proximity of the appellations muſt frequently occaſion confuſion and miſtakes, they had better be diſmiſſed from geography, being probably extraneous and Arabic, while the native words are the Harrat or Amu, and the Sirr, Sirt, or river of Shaſh. Rivers.

The Amu riſes in the mountains of Belur, more than 200 B. miles N. E. from Badakſhan, according to the map of Iſlenief; and before it reach that city has already received the Ortong from the E. From Badakſhan it paſſes W. to Termed, after receiving numerous ſtreams from the Ak Tau on the N. (among which the moſt conſiderable is the Vaſh,) and from the Hindoo Koh on the S. After being joined from the ſame quarter by the Dehaſh, or river of Balk, with collected ſtreams from the mountains of Gaur, the Amu follows a N. W. direction, and falls into the ſea of Aral, which appears, as before mentioned, to have been in all ages its chief receptacle, though a branch formerly paſſed by Urghenz towards the Caſpian, and another ſeems to have been detached near Hazaraſp; nay, in a country full of deſerts, and only partially Amu. Oxus.

* It is probable there may be large foreſts on the weſtern ſide of the Belur, as Bentink, p. 258, ſays that timber abounds.

viſited,

Rivers. viſited, even the mouth of the Ochus or Tedjen has by ſome been confounded with the Amu. The whole courſe of this noble river ſurpaſſes that of the Tigris, being probably not leſs than 900 B. miles. It abounds with fiſh of various ſorts.

Beſides the numerous tributary ſtreams already mentioned, three remarkable rivers join the Amu; the Sogd or river of Samarcand, already mentioned; the Morgab, which, however, according to ſome, is loſt in a lake without any outlet to the Amu; and at its eſtuary the Kizil Daria, or Red River, the longeſt and moſt c nſiderable ſtream, and of which a branch ſeems to flow apart into the Aral.

Sirr. Iaxartes. The Sirr, or river of Shaſh, alſo riſes in the mountains of Belur, and falls into the eaſtern ſide of the ſea of Aral, after a courſe of about 550 B. miles. Ebn Haukal, who gives a curious account of theſe regions in the tenth century, calls this river the Chaje. According to Iſlenieff the furtheſt ſource of the Sirr is the river Narin, which riſes to the S. of the lake Tuzkul in the chain of Alak, near its junction with the Belur alps; and by the account of Pallas the ſource is near that of the river Talas. The Narin itſelf conſiſts of numerous ſtreams collected from the ridges of Alak and Argun, bending to the S., while the other rivers in this quarter flow in a north direction; but the Sirr, peculiarly ſo called in the map of Iſlenieff, riſes in the mountains of Terek Daban, or northern part of the Belur chain, where it joins that of Alak. After paſſing Andegan and Cojend, the Sirr or Iaxartes runs N. W. by Taſhkund and Tuncat, where it is joined by a conſiderable river from the E. At Otrar it receives the river Taraz, which by ſome is ſuppoſed to be the ſame with the Talas above mentioned; but by others a far more inconſiderable ſtream. The remaining courſe of the Sirr is chiefly through the deſart of Burzuk; and it is doubtful if it be joined by the Saraſu, a large river from the N., ſo imperfect is the geography of theſe regions, which it is to be regretted that the Ruſſians, or ſome enterprizing travellers, do not inveſtigate.

In the country poſſeſſed by the Three Hords of Kirguſes are alſo other conſiderable ſtreams, as the Dzui, which riſes on the N. of the lake Tuzkul; and the Irghiz and Turgai, which flow into a lake on the N. of

N. of the Aral; not to mention the Iſſim, pervading the ſtepp of the ſame name. Several of theſe lakes and rivers, now obſcure, are remarkable in the hiſtory of Zingis and his ſucceſſors, when directing their conqueſts to the N. of the Caſpian, they ſubdued the greater part of European Ruſſia. Rivers.

The moſt conſiderable lake is the ſea of Aral, or of eagles, already mentioned in the general view of Aſia. If this lake ever joined the Caſpian it was probably only by a ſtrait, as between them are plains of great elevation, and according to ſome even mountains; but there may have been a ſtrait in the direction of a ſalt lake to the N. E. of port Iſcander. To infer that the Iaxartes once paſſed in this direction ſeems an idle theory; for as it appears from Pallas that the Caſpian was anciently far more extenſive, it is more probable that the Aral ſhould have formed part of the Caſpian, than that it ſhould be a lake of recent formation. It is ſufficiently clear, from other circumſtances, that the Greeks and Romans knew nothing with preciſion concerning the eaſtern ſhores of the Caſpian, and Pliny has acknowledged the defect: and it is a vain attempt to reconcile modern knowledge with ancient ignorance. The lake Tengis, Balcaſh, or Palkati, is near 140 B. miles in length, by half that breadth, being the largeſt lake in Aſia, after the ſeas of Aral and Baikal; but this, with two other very conſiderable lakes to the E., properly belong to the Kalmuks ſubject to China. The lakes in the country of the Kirguſes are of leſs moment. In the ſouthern regions of Great Bucharia the river Sogd ſprings from the lake of Tharan, and according to ſome is loſt in that of Karagol. A lake at the foot of the Belur is repreſented by ſome as the ſource of the Ortong which flows into the Amu. The Morgab and Tedjen, rivers of Coraſan, are, according to ſome, loſt in lakes. When travellers explore the mountainous region between Great and Little Bucharia, it is probable that many lakes may be diſcovered, as not unuſual in alpine countries. Lakes. Aral. Balcaſh.

The principal range of mountains is that of Belur, which, according to all accounts, is a great alpine chain, covered with perpetual ſnow.* Mountains. Belur.

It

* The Mus Tag of General Strahlenberg's map is a chain running parallel to the Belur, (alſo, as he ſays, called *Bolut*) on the E. But that map, though ſurprizing for the time, ſwarms with

Mountains. It is to be hoped that the eye of ſcience will ſoon explore its receſſes, which, as we have ſeen, will prove very productive in objects of natural hiſtory. The chief branches proceed towards the W., for on the E. is the high central plain of Aſia, full of deſarts, as if nature had here performed her earlieſt operations, when this firſt and greateſt continent emerged from the primeval waters, and its great height had afterwards drawn its fertility into the plains of China and Hindoſtan. Of this extenſive table-land the Belur may be regarded as the weſtern buttreſs, continued by the mountains of Jimbal and Kiſik Tag to the Altaian chain, which forms the northern buttreſs on the S. of the ſea of Baikal. On the E. this plain gradually declines from the ſources of the Onon and Kerlon, and the S. limit of the deſart of Shamo, while the numerous alps of Tibet, to which country there is a gradual aſcent from China, form the ſouthern and excreſcent buttreſs. Except in ſome few places, ſheltered from the N. and E., this extenſive elevation is expoſed to extreme cold, the reverſe of the deſerts of Africa. It is interſected with great ranges of mountains, whoſe height muſt be enormous ſuperadded to that of the baſes; the weſtern parts in particular, between Siberia and Tibet, abound with irregular ridges of naked rocks, preſenting as it were the ruins of mountains.

Centre of Aſia.

Other Mountains. The chain of Belur, the ancient Imaus, proceeds nearly N. and S., and is continued by the mountains of Alak or Alak Oola on the N. of Little Bucharia,* which join the great Bogdo, the higheſt mountain in central Aſia, according to the reports of the Monguls and Tatars. On the S. the Belur ſeems more intimately connected with the Hindoo Koh than with the northern ridges of Tibet. The Hindoo Koh, and

with errors; and even here he ſays that this part of the Mus Tag is the ſame with Paropamiſus, which is well known to be the mountains of Gaur, running E. and W. His other Mus Tag is therefore right, as appears from the maps of Wahl and Iſlenieff, being in fact the Tataric name for the northern ridge of Tibet.

* The Alak Oola is the Ula Gola of Strahlenberg, which he confounds with the Ungan Daga; and his Muſart is part of the Alak of Iſlenieff. Wahl and others have taken many names at random from his map, which is valuable as it gave us the firſt ideas of central Aſia; and a compariſon between it and the modern maps might afford matter for an intereſting geographical commentary. Sarikol, and other names in Little Bucharia, have been rather raſhly adopted from Strahlenberg into our Engliſh maps.

mountains of Gaur, muſt not be forgotten among thoſe of Great Bucharia, being ſeemingly an extenſion of the chain of Belur, without any interruption, except a narrow paſs to the S. of Anderab. The mountains of Argjun or Argun ſeem to form one chain with the Kara Tau, though broken, as not unuſual, by the tranſition of a river; and, like the Ak Tau in the S., appear a branch detached from the Belur. In the country of the Kirguſes the Kiſik Tag is probably an expiring branch of the great Altaian chain, like the Bugli Tag in the N. To the S. of the deſert range called Algidym Zano, a ſolitary mountain, the Ulu Tau, is delineated by Iſlenieff, probably that mentioned by Pallas, as a ſingular hill, in the midſt of the Tatarian deſerts, like that of the little Bogdo in the ſtepp in the E. of the Volga.* Mountains.

Neither the botany nor zoology of this country have been explored by any intelligent naturaliſt. We have ſeen that the alpine regions preſent many of the animals of Tibet. The mineralogy is not ſo obſcure, though the Mongols and Tatars, who may be ſaid to have poſſeſſed this country for a thouſand years, have not induſtry for the proper purſuit of metalurgy. The alpine heights in the S. E. contain gold, ſilver, and a peculiar production, the balay, or pale roſe-coloured ruby; not to mention lazulite, or lapis lazuli. In the tenth century, before the native induſtry had expired under long oppreſſion, Fergana produced ſal ammoniac, vitriol, iron, copper,† gold, and turkoiſes: and quick-ſilver is added, a rare and valuable product. In the mountain of Zarka there were ſprings of naphtha and bitumen, and "a ſtone that takes fire and burns," which muſt imply coal. In the country of Setruſhteh, D'Anville's Oſruſhna, there was a cavern, whence a vapour aroſe, which in the night ſeemed fiery, and from which ſal ammoniac was procured. On digging the ground a ſimilar vapour would ariſe, as we are told of the fires near Baku. In the mountains of Ailak or Ilak, the moſt northern province around Otrar, there were mines of gold and ſilver. This venerable father of Arabian geography has com- Mineralogy.

* From this mountain Timur beheld the vaſt ſtepps, waving like a ſea of graſs. Cherefeddin, ii. 81. edit. 1722.

† Ebn Haukal. He adds, p. 272, lead; and ſays that the chief mines of Fergana were in the mountains of Aſhchreh, perhaps the Chechalith of Gocz, two days from the province of Sarchil.

MINERALOGY. penſated for the penury of his information reſpecting natural hiſtory, by an animated character of this country and its people, which may be here introduced, as a relief from the dryneſs of ſome of the details, unavoidable in deſcribing a country highly celebrated, but the geography of which unaccountably remains the moſt defective of any in Aſia, with the ſingle exception of interior Arabia.

Character. " Such are the generoſity and liberality of the inhabitants, that no one turns aſide from the rites of hoſpitality; ſo that a perſon contemplating them in this light, would imagine *that all the families of the land were but one houſe.* When a traveller arrives there every perſon endeavours to attract him to himſelf, that he may have opportunities of performing kind offices for the ſtranger: and the beſt proof of their hoſpitable and generous diſpoſition is, that every peaſant, though poſſeſſing but a bare ſufficiency, allots a portion of his cottage for the reception of a gueſt. On the arrival of a ſtranger they contend one with another for the pleaſure of taking him to their home, and entertaining him. Thus, in acts of hoſpitality, they expend their incomes. The author of this work ſays, ' I happened once to be in Soghd, and there I ſaw a certain palace, or great building, the doors of which were faſtened back with nails againſt the walls. I aſked the reaſon of this, and they informed me that it was an hundred years and more ſince thoſe doors had been ſhut, all that time they had continued open day and night, ſtrangers might arrive there at the moſt unſeaſonable hours, or in any numbers, for the maſter of the houſe had provided every thing neceſſary both for the men and for their beaſts; and he appeared with a delighted and joyful countenance when the gueſts tarried a while. Never have I heard of ſuch things in any other country. The rich and great lords of moſt other places expend their treaſures on particular favourites, in the indulgence of groſs appetites, and ſenſual gratifications. The people of Maweralnahr employ themſelves in a uſeful and rational manner: they lay out their money in erecting caravanſerais, or inns, building bridges and ſuch works. You cannot ſee any town, or ſtage, or even deſert, in Maweralnahr, without a convenient inn, or ſtage-houſe, for the accommodation of travellers, with every thing neceſſary. I have heard that there are above two thouſand rebats,

or

or inns in Maweralnahr, where as many perſons as may arrive ſhall find ſufficient forage for their beaſts, and meat for themſelves.' CHARACTER.

" The author of the book further ſays, 'I have heard from a reſpectable perſon who was with Naſſer Ahmed, in the war of Samarcand, that of all his immenſe army the greater part were men of Maweralnahr; and I have heard that Motaſem wrote a letter to Abdallah ben Taher. The anſwer of Abdallah was, that in Maweralnahr there are three hundred thouſand Kulabs: each Kulab furniſhes one horſeman and one foot-ſoldier; and the abſence of theſe men, when they go forth, is not felt, or is not perceptible in the country. I have heard that the inhabitants of Chaje and Ferghaneh are ſo numerous, and ſo well diſciplined, and furniſhed with implements of war, that they are not to be equalled in any region of Iſlam. And among the lower claſſes there are farmers who poſſeſs from one hundred to five hundred head of cattle. Notwithſtanding all this, there are not any people more obedient to their kings; and at all times the Turk ſoldiers had the precedence of every other race, and the Khalifs always choſe them on account of their excellent ſervices, their obedient diſpoſition, their bravery, and their fidelity.'

" Maweralnahr has produced ſo many great princes and generals, that no region can ſurpaſs it. The bravery of its inhabitants cannot be exceeded in any quarter of the Muſſulman world. Their numbers and their diſcipline give them an advantage over other nations, which, if an army be defeated, or a body of troops loſt at ſea, cannot furniſh another army for a conſiderable time; but in all Maweralnahr, ſhould ſuch accidents happen, one tribe is ready to ſupply the loſſes of another without any delay.

" In all the regions of the earth there is not a more flouriſhing or a more delightful country than this, eſpecially the diſtrict of Bokhara. If a perſon ſtand on the Kohendiz (or ancient caſtle) of Bokhara, and caſt his eyes around, he ſhall not ſee any thing but beautiful and luxuriant verdure on every ſide of the country: ſo that he would imagine the green of the earth and the azure of the heavens were united: and as there are green fields in every quarter, ſo there are villas interſperſed

Character. among the green fields. And in all Khoraſan and Maweralnahr there are not any people more long-lived than thoſe of Bokhara.

'It is ſaid that in all the world there is not any place more delightful (or ſalubrious) than thoſe three: one, the Soghd of Samarcand; another, the Rud Aileh; and the third, the Ghutah of Damaſcus.' But the Ghutah of Damaſcus is within one farſang of barren and dry hills, without trees; and it contains many places which are deſolate, and produce no verdure. 'A fine proſpect ought to be ſuch as completely fills the eye, and nothing ſhould be viſible but ſky and green.' The river Aileh* affords, for one farſang only, this kind of proſpect; and there is not in the vicinity of it any eminence from which one can ſee beyond a farſang; and the verdant ſpot is either ſurrounded by, or oppoſite to a dreary deſert. But the walls, and buildings, and cultivated plains of Bokhara, extend above thirteen farſang, by twelve farſang; and the Soghd, for eight days journey, is all delightful country, affording fine proſpects, and full of gardens, and orchards, and villages, corn fields, and villas, and running ſtreams, reſervoirs, and fountains, both on the right hand, and on the left. You paſs from corn fields into rich meadows, and paſture lands; and the Soghd is far more healthy than the Rud Aileh, or the Ghutah of Dameſhk (or Damaſcus); and the fruits of Soghd are the fineſt in the world. Among the hills and palaces flow running ſtreams, gliding between the trees."[15]

* From the editor's preface, p. xv, it appears that this is the Ablah, or Ubbulah, near Baſra or Baſſora, about ſixteen miles to the E. of that city.

[15] Ebn Haukal, by Sir Wm. Ouſeley, p. 234.

ARABIA.

CHAPTER I.

Boundaries. —Population. —Progreſſive Geography. — Hiſtorical Epochs. — Religion. —Government. —Manners and Cuſtoms.—Dreſs.—Language. —Education.—Cities and Towns.—Edifices.—Manufactures.—Products.—Commerce.

THE laſt remaining country of the wide Aſiatic continent is Arabia, a region alſo more highly celebrated than preciſely known. By the ancients it was divided into three unequal portions; Petræa, or the Stoney, a ſmall province on the N. of the Red ſea, between Egypt and Paleſtine, ſo called from the number of granitic rocks and mountains, the moſt remarkable of which is Sinai: Arabia Deſerta was the eaſtern part, ſo far as known to the ancients; while Arabia the Happy compriſed the S. W. on the ſhores of the Red Sea.

The boundaries on the W. and S. are marked by the Red Sea, or Arabian gulf, and the Indian ocean; while the Perſian gulf extends a conſiderable way on the E. and this boundary is conſidered as continued by the Euphrates, or rather by the deſerts towards the weſt, for the ancient Chaldea, a part of Babylonia, compriſed the weſtern ſhores of that river. The northern limits are leſs ſtrongly marked; but both in ancient and modern times riſe to an angle about a hundred miles to the E. of Palmyra, which is not included in Arabia. Thence the line proceeds S. W. to the S. E. angle of the Mediterranean, a northern boundary of Arabia Petræa. BOUNDARIES.

From the cape of Babelmandeb to the extreme angle on the Euphrates, the length may be not leſs than 1800 B. miles; while the medial breadth may be about 800.

Boundaries. The central part of Arabia is filled with the vaſt province, or rather deſert, called Neged, occupying almoſt the whole country, except a few ſmall portions towards the ſhores, as Hejaz on the Red Sea, which contains Mecca and Medina, Yemen on the S. towards the ſtraits of Babelmandeb; Hadramaut on the ſhores of the Indian ocean, and Omon on the S. of the entrance of the Perſian gulf; with Lahſa, or Hajar, the Hejer of D'Anville, on the weſtern ſhores of the ſame gulf.*

Population. The population is original and indigenous, the Arabians being the ſame race with the Aſſyrians of remote antiquity, the probable fathers of the Syrians, Egyptians, and Abyſſinians, whoſe languages are intimately allied, as is that of the Hebrews; being totally different in form and ſtructure, from that of the Perſians, their powerful neighbours in the E. By all accounts, ſacred and profane, the Aſſyrians were the moſt ancient civilized and commercial people; and when modern philoſophy is diveſted of its prejudices, there will be no reaſon to infer ſuperior pretenſions from China, and far leſs from Hindoſtan. Nor will good ſenſe readily admit that a nation more anciently civilized exiſted in the centre, or north of Aſia, the relics of civilization being numerous, and almoſt indelible. Situated in a country nearly central, between Aſia, Africa, and Europe; and in the wide intercourſe of the Mediterranean, and the Arabian and Perſian gulfs; it was natural that the variety of productions and wants ſhould occaſion the firſt riſe of commerce in Syria; and the merchants of Tyre had explored the ſhores of Britain, when the Chineſe ſeem not to have diſcovered thoſe of Japan, a circumſtance which of itſelf declares a vaſt ſuperiority in navigation, whence the like may be inferred of the other arts and ſciences. The pretenſions of the Hindoos have been already weighed, and confuted; that feeble and indolent race, paſſive in knowledge as in war, appearing to have received their confuſed ideas of the ſciences from the eaſt and from the weſt: while, according to the common rules of hiſtory, till China can produce one book as ancient as the ſcripture, her

* The curious reader may compare the intereſting deſcription of Arabia by Abulfeda, of which the beſt tranſlation is in the *Voyage dans la Paleſtine* of D'Arvieux, Paris, 1717, 8vo. with Niebuhr's recent accounts.

claim muſt fall to the ground. This early civilization will excite the leſs ſurpriſe, when it is conſidered that even the modern Arabians are a moſt ſagacious and intelligent race of men, remarkable alſo for ſpirit and valour, whoſe country alone has never been ſubdued by any invader, and who alone, of all Aſiatic nations, have preſerved the ſacred flame of freedom, which their progenitors kindled in their inacceſſible mountains. In comparatively modern times they have vindicated the fame of their ancient preeminence by giving religion and laws to half of Aſia, and Africa, and a great part of Europe. The Arabian chalifs in Spain, Africa, and Egypt, as well as at Bagdad, cultivated the arts and ſciences; and ſhewed a great ſuperiority to the barbarous powers of Europe at that period. From Samarcand to the centre of Africa the Arabian language and manners are held in veneration. Population.

This diſtinguiſhed country is known in the earlieſt records of hiſtory and geography; and being celebrated for products which could only be procured by navigation, muſt have been no ſtranger to mercantile enterprize on its furtheſt ſhores towards the Indian ocean.* Strabo, and even Eratoſthenes, appear to have known thoſe ſouthern coaſts, though not ſo diſtinctly as thoſe on the eaſt of the Arabian gulf. Ptolemy's deſcription of Arabia evinces a conſiderable portion of accurate knowledge; and of the interior parts, as well as thoſe of Africa, he probably, from his reſidence and opportunities in Egypt, had acquired a knowledge far ſuperior to any poſſeſſed at the preſent moment. He has however greatly diminiſhed the length of the Arabian gulf; and by increaſing the ſize of the Perſian has conſiderably injured the juſt form of the country, as delineated by the accuracy of modern obſervations. In the tenth century Ebn Haukal, though an Arab, gives no account of Arabia; whence it may perhaps be inferred that his work is mutilated, and only the part relative to Perſia, and the countries beyond the Oxus, preſerved by his Perſian tranſlator. But later Arabian geographers, particularly Abulfeda, in ſome degree compenſate for this deficiency. Yet even the juſt geography of the ſhores is recent, and has been improved ſince the time of D'Anville, a name for extenſive ſcience, and exact induſtry, to be held in perpetual veneration. Niebuhr, to whom Progreſſive Geography.

* Hindoos, or Banians, are ſtill numerous in Arabia, as appears from Niebuhr.

we

Progressive Geography.

we are indebted for the beſt account of this country, penetrated but a little way into the interior; and many diſcoveries here remain for the enterprizing traveller: but the paſſage is extremely difficult, the country being divided among a ſurpriſing number of Imams, and Sheiks, who often carry on petty wars, or rob the traveller from pure regard, that he may not be robbed as he proceeds.

Hiſtorical Epochs.

The hiſtorical epochs of this people might be traced from the Aſſyrian empire, the moſt ancient on record, the Aſſyrians being only a northern branch of the Arabs. But the hiſtory of interior Arabia is deeply obſcure, till the time of Mahomet; and their traditional ſongs chiefly celebrate Antar, a hero renowned like the Ruſtan of the Perſians.* Arabia never appears to have been united, either in a republic, or under one monarch, except in the time of Mahomet and his ſucceſſors; and the traditions of the petty ſtates cannot be intereſting. The kingdom of Yemen, or the S. W. extremity, has been repeatedly ſubdued by the Abyſſinians, the Perſians, the Sultans of Egypt, and the Turks;[1] being ſeparated from the interior by deſerts, as well as mountains: but the wide inland countries of Neged have defied all invaſion, and, far from being conquered, are almoſt unknown; being ſuppoſed to have been, from the earlieſt times, divided among many Sheiks, or little princes, whoſe minute tranſactions have eſcaped hiſtorical record. Yet Niebuhr informs us that Arabian traditions faintly indicate that the whole country was ſubject, in the earlieſt times, to a race of monarchs called Tobba, like the Pharaohs of Egypt, worſhippers of fire from the country of Samarcand, who vanquiſhed Arabia, and introduced civilization. Niebuhr adds that an inſcription was found in the interior which correſponded with the characters of Perſepolis, whoſe founder is alſo ſaid by the Perſians to have come from Samarcand. But whatever credit be lent to the Tobba kings, it is ſufficiently clear that the civilization of the Arabs aroſe on the contrary from themſelves; the Aſſyrians and Egyptians having a more juſt and ancient claim to that diſtinction, than the countries on the E. of the Caſpian. Nor is it improbable that

* Tradition alſo celebrates Saad el Kammel, ſaid to have been king of all Arabia more than eighteen centuries ago. For old Arabian hiſtory, ſee Pocock's Specimen, 1650, 4to.

[1] Gibbon, ix. 229.

this

this tale was invented by the Arabs, after the conqueſts of Zingis and Timur, with whom they might thus ſeek a connection. Historical Epochs.

The Hamiar kings are alſo ſaid to have ruled over great part of Arabia; but probably they only reigned in Hadramaut, which includes the land of Hamiar, or of the Homorites. The hiſtory of Neged would be the moſt intereſting, but as the Arabians, peculiarly ſo called, were deſtitute of letters, till the age of Mahomet, it cannot be ſuppoſed to aſpire to much antiquity. Arabia in general preſents few ancient monuments.*

The ancient idolatry of Arabia has been explained by the writers on the life of Mahomet; and human ſacrifices appear to have been offered by the natives of this country, as well as by their brethren the Syrians and Carthaginians. Sabianiſm afterwards ſpread from Chaldea. Nor was the Chriſtian religion unknown before the appearance of Mahomet, whoſe ſyſtem was ſoon diffuſed throughout Arabia. Beſides the Sunnis there is here a conſiderable ſect called the Zeidites, who in moſt points agree with the former, but ſeem rather more lax in their faith and practice. About the middle of laſt century a Sheik of Yemen, called Mekkrami, eſtabliſhed a kind of new ſect of Mahometaniſm: and about the ſame period what may be called a new religion was commenced in the province El Ared, in the central diviſion of Neged, by a learned traveller of that country called Abd ul Wahheb;[2] which by the lateſt accounts begins to make conſiderable progreſs under his ſucceſſors. He is ſaid to have taught that God alone ſhould be adored, and invocated: while the mention of Mahomet, or any other prophet he conſidered as approaching to idolatry. However this be, it is certain that the Sunnis are perſecuted by this new ſect; which is not matter of wonder when it is conſidered that the Sunneſe ſyſtem, followed by the Turks, is the moſt intolerant of the Mahometan ſects, and ſeems to have no claim to ſuperiority except that of the Turks over Mecca and Medina. Religion.

* On a journey in 1782 from Aleppo to Buſſora, ſome grand ruins were diſcovered about half way between Palmyra and the Euphrates, ſix days journey S. E. from Aleppo, conſiſting of walls of brick and freeſtone, with pillars and arches richly ornamented, and an inſcription in Arabic. Aſ. Reſ. iv. 399.

[2] Niebuhr Deſcrip. de l'Arabie. Copenhag. 1773, 4to. p. 298.

GOVERNMENT. This country is divided among numerous Imams and Sheiks, an idea of whoſe government may be drawn from that of Yemen which is deſcribed by Niebuhr. The title of *Imam* implying Vicar, that is of Mahomet, is eccleſiaſtic; and among the Turks implies a common prieſt, while the Mulla preſides in a court of juſtice. But among the Perſians and Arabs the title Imam is of ſuperior dignity, as the twelve Imams, or genuine ſucceſſors of the prophet in Perſia; while in Arabia the word is conſidered as ſynonymous with *Chalif*, and *Emir El Mumenin*, or Prince of the faithful.[3] The antiquity of this title has not been explained, but the hiſtory of the Imams of Yemen is very modern; and though theſe Imams ſometimes celebrate divine ſervice, the ſtyle of Emir, which they themſelves aſſume on their coins, ſeems more proper and preciſe. The inferior governments are conducted by Sheiks, a term merely implying old men, and ſeems rarely mingled with the eccleſiaſtic character.

The throne of Yemen is hereditary: and the Imam, or Emir, an independent power, acknowledging no ſuperior in ſpiritual or temporal affairs.[4] He poſſeſſes the prerogative of peace and war; but cannot be called deſpotic, as he cannot deprive even a Jew, or a Pagan of life, but the cauſe muſt be tried before the ſupreme tribunal of Sana, conſiſting of ſeveral Cadis, while he is only preſident. When an Emir ſhews a deſpotic diſpoſition he is commonly dethroned. The next in rank are the Fakis, a title ſo lax as ſeemingly only to employ gentlemen. The governors of diſtricts are called Dolas; or, if ſuperior in birth, Walis. The Dola in ſome degree correſponds with the Turkiſh Paſha. The chief magiſtrate of a ſmall town without a garriſon is called Sheik; as a ſuperior governor is ſometimes called Emir, and in little villages Hakim. The Baſkateb, or comptroller, is an officer who depends on the prince, and inſpects the conduct of the Dola, and the management of the revenues. In each diſtrict there is alſo a Cadi; who, like thoſe in Turkey, are judges of eccleſiaſtic and civil affairs; and perhaps depend on the chief Cadis at Sana, as thoſe of Turkey on the Mufti; but in Arabia the prince himſelf is the high prieſt. His army, in peace, was computed at 4000 infantry, and 1000 cavalry; the ſoldiers being,

[3] Niebuhr, 162. [4] Ib. 179.

as

as uſual in the eaſt, without uniforms. There is no navy, and the veſſels in general are very rudely conſtructed, thoſe of Yemen having ſails made of matting. GOVERNMENT.

Were Arabia united under one ſovereign, as happened in the time of Mahomet and his immediate ſucceſſors, its political importance may be inferred from the events of that period. Yet even then little is known, except with regard to the nations and tribes on the weſtern ſhores, and on the northern frontiers towards Syria and Perſia. There is, however, reaſon to infer that the internal province of Neged preſents extenſive deſerts like thoſe of Perſia and Africa, in which caſe the former provinces in fact include the whole power of Arabia. But as an accurate idea of this ſubject, ſo far as the imperfect materials will admit, is indiſpenſable in forming a juſt eſtimate of this extenſive country, Niebuhr's ſhort account of Neged may be here inſerted.[3]

" This large country extends from Lahſa, or Hajar, and Irak Arabi, on the E. to Hejaz; and from Yemen on the S. to the deſerts of Syria on the N. The greateſt part of this province is inhabited by Beduins, or wandering Arabs. The part which is particularly known under the name of Neged is mountainous, yet full of towns and villages, as well as of little lordſhips, ſo that almoſt every little town is governed by an independent Sheik. Nevertheleſs, at the time when the Sherefs were more powerful, ſeveral of theſe little Sheiks have been ſometimes obliged to pay tribute to Mecca. The mountainous parts of Neged are very fertile in all ſorts of fruits, particularly dates. There are few rivers, and even that which is marked in the map of D'Anville (the Aſtan) is only a *wadi*, or a torrent which runs after heavy rains. For this cauſe the Arabs of this country are obliged to dig very deep wells; and the want of water renders agriculture very laborious. Neged.

" There are in the province of Neged, properly ſo called, two principal diſtricts, namely, Ared and Kerjé. The former borders on Hajar, or Lahſa, to the eaſt; and preſents a diſtrict called Hanifa, anciently celebrated, and ſtill known by the ſame name. The dependencies are Aijana, a town which produced Wahheb the new prophet, and Mun-

[3] Niebuhr, p. 296, the names are given in the orthography of Gibbon, ix. 222.

Government. foha." Niebuhr mentions other towns of Ared, among which is Jebrin, on the confines of Lahfa.

" The province of Kerjé is in the S. W. part of Neged, and of courfe on the frontiers of Yemen: it extends along the E. of Hejaz, a conſiderable way to the N. Here is the town of Imama, which in the time of Mahomet was renowned for the prophet Moſeilama, in the diſtrict called Surza. This province alſo compriſes other towns, among which is Salemia on the confines of Yemen. Mount Schamer, ten days journey from Bagdad, is in the northern part of Neged [and its precincts diſplay ſeveral towns mentioned by Niebuhr*]. In Neged there is alſo a hilly country called Jof al Siran, between mount Schamer, and Sham, or Syria: it contains two towns, Skake and Duma.

" The Arabs of Neged are not more inhuman towards ſtrangers than the reſt of their nation, nor leſs hoſpitable; but as this country contains ſo many little independent ſtates, each governed by a Sheik, it may be eaſily conceived that travellers here find little ſecurity. Each prince endeavours to get from them all he can; and as they are commonly at war with each other, ſtrangers are deſpoiled by the firſt, that his neighbours may not be the richer. Hence opulent foreign merchants cannot hazard their caravans in theſe regions; and thoſe that come from Omon and Lahſa to Mecca are generally compoſed of beggars, or people who wiſh to paſs for ſuch: and the caravan which every year leaves Bagdad for Mecca, accompanied with many rich Perſians, is in proportion to its number, charged with ſimilar expences and extortions as thoſe of Turkey, Egypt, and Magreb, which paſs by Hejaz. Yet there is room to believe that the towns of Neged carry on a conſiderable trade among themſelves, and with the neighbouring places in Hejaz, Yemen, and Lahſa, whence it may be poſſible for a European traveller to inſpect this internal part of Arabia. I was told at Bazra that in Neged a young Arab cannot marry till he have proved his valour by the death of one of his enemies; but this appears to me extravagant, except wild beaſts may be reckoned among enemies; and even in this

* This province, unknown to our maps, might be named from the mountain till further enquiry: it muſt be about 200 miles from Bagdad, probably S. W. D'Anville has doubled the diſtance.

caſe the law muſt not be of rigorous acceptation, as the Arabs of Neged are not leſs eager than the other orientals to marry their children very young." GOVERNMENT.

Niebuhr then proceeds to mention the new prophet Wahheb, of the province of Hanifa, alſo now called Daraia. Of the wandering Beduins of Neged, one of the chief tribes is the Beni Kaled, who have conquered Lahſa, the reigning Sheik moſtly living in tents: the tribe of Kiab dwells in towns and villages; while that of Montefic occupies both ſhores of the Euphrates, from its confluence with the Tigris to Arasje. Other tribes in that quarter need not be indicated. In the great deſert of the province of Neged the tribe of Anaſi is the principal; and there is another called Schamer, from the mountain: but it is to be regretted that Niebuhr's information concerning the inland regions is not more extenſive; and that his maps are chorographic; while, from his general knowledge, he might have given a map of Arabia, ſuperior to that of D'Anville.

From this general idea of the greater part of Arabia, it will be perceived that the manners and cuſtoms of the inhabitants muſt principally be common with thoſe of the other Beduins, ſo frequently deſcribed by numerous travellers. Thoſe of the country of Yemen have been accurately delineated by Niebuhr; and this province will probably, after the utmoſt diſcovery, continue to be regarded as the moſt intereſting portion; repreſenting, as Gibbon has obſerved, the Arabia Felix of antiquity.* In Yemen murder is puniſhed with death, but more often left to private revenge, which occaſions family feuds, that peſtilence of ſociety. The other cuſtoms are chiefly common with the Mahometan nations; but in politeneſs the Arabs vie with the Perſians, and there are ſtill remains of their ancient hoſpitality. The common ſalutation is the *Salam Alekum*, or Peace be with you; in pronouncing which words they raiſe the right hand to the heart, but this form is ſeldom addreſſed to Chriſtians. On meeting in their wide deſerts the ſalutations are multiplied; and the hand of a ſuperior is kiſſed in token of reſpect; Manners and Cuſtoms.

* Ptolemy has extended this name over the wide deſerts which reach from Omon to Mecca; but it is probable that he, as uſual, filled up the central intervals with nations and towns which belonged to the ſhores.

a ceremony

Manners and Customs.

a ceremony which ſometimes paſſes among equals, whence it would ſeem is derived the Spaniſh expreſſion of kiſſing the hands, probably adopted from their Mooriſh victors. The houſes, though of ſtone, are meanly conſtructed; the apartments of the men being in front, thoſe of the women behind; and the fair ſex in general ſeem remarkably ſubmiſſive. Of a middle ſtature, thin, and dried as it were by the ſun, the Arab is moderate in his food, the common people ſeldom exceeding a repaſt of bad bread made from durra a kind of millet, mixed with camels' milk, oil, butter, or greaſe; the only drink being water. This bread of durra cuſtom has taught them to prefer to that of barley, which, though pleaſant, they think unſubſtantial. Meat is little uſed, even by the rich, who deem it unhealthy in a hot climate: it is always ſtewed under a cover, which renders it ſucculent. The ſmall tables, about a foot in height, are placed on a large cloth, or mat, upon which the gueſts ſit. The orientals in general being water drinkers they are very fond of paſtry. The moſt noted drink is coffee, which they prepare, like the Turks, by burning it in an open pan, and then bruiſing in a ſtone, or wooden mortar, which mode, according to our author, preſerves a ſuperior flavour to the common mode of grinding in a mill. In Yemen it is rarely uſed, as in their opinion it heats the blood; but of the ſhells, or huſks of the coffee they prepare a liquor in the manner of tea. The moſt diſtinguiſhed Arabs uſe porcelain from China, while the common people have recourſe to earthen ware. Spirituous liquors, though forbidden, are not abſolutely unknown; and they ſometimes ſmoke a plant reſembling hemp, which produces intoxication; nor is tobacco neglected, which is ſmoked either in the Turkiſh or Perſian manner.

Dreſs.

The dreſs, like that of the Turks and Hindoos, is long, often with large trowſers, a girdle of embroidered leather, and a knife, or dagger. Over the ſhoulder is worn a large piece of fine linen, originally deſigned to keep off the ſun, or the rain. The head-dreſs ſeems oppreſſive, conſiſting of ſeveral bonnets, from ten to fifteen, ſome of linen, others of cotton and woollen, the outmoſt being often richly embroidered with gold; and around this multitude of bonnets is wrapt

what

what they call a faſch, being a large piece of muſlin, with fringes of ſilk or gold, which hang down behind. This thick covering for the head, which ſeems at firſt glance incongruous, may be neceſſary to ſecure them from what are called ſtrokes of the ſun: and the like form is viſible in the ancient monuments of Egypt, where a labourer will often ſtrip himſelf naked, and place his cloaths upon his head. The chief dreſs is often a large ſhirt, either white, or ſtriped with blue; while the common Arabs have only a piece of linen girt about the loins, with the belt and dagger; and another piece of linen over the ſhoulder; and two or three bonnets. The feet are often naked, and the ſoles become exceſſively hard; but in the mountains they are protected with ſheep ſkin. Some ſhave the head, while others wear their hair. The common women are dreſſed in the large ſhift and trowſers: in Hejaz, as in Egypt, the eyes are expoſed between coverings of linen, but in Yemen large veils are worn, with rings, bracelets, and necklaces of falſe pearls: ſometimes in addition to ear-rings there is a noſe-ring, as in Hindoſtan. The nails are ſtained red, and the feet and hands of a yellowiſh brown, with henna: the eye laſhes are darkened with antimony, as in many other oriental countries; and every art is exerted to render the eyebrows large and black. Polygamy is confined to the rich; and throughout the whole Mahometan regions is far leſs general than is commonly ſuppoſed in Europe. Dress.

The language of the Arabs was, even in ancient times, divided into ſeveral dialects, as may be ſuſpected from its wide diffuſion; and Niebuhr ſays that the modern Arabic contains perhaps more dialects than any other tongue. Even in Yemen there are ſubdiviſions; and polite people uſe a different enunciation from the vulgar. The language of the Koran is ſo different from the modern ſpeech of Mecca, that is taught in the colleges there, as the Latin is at Rome. That of the frontier mountains of Yemen and Hejaz is thought to approach neareſt to the ancient ſtandard. Our learned author is induced to think that under the Tobba kings, the characters called Perſepolitan were uſed in Arabia; but theſe letters are more probably of Aſſyrian extract, and hence belong to the Arabs themſelves. Theſe characters were ſucceeded by the Hamiaric, ſo called from a race of kings; and Language.

Language. thefe were followed by the Cufic. The Arabian authors feem to have magnified the ignorance of their country before the time of Mahomet, in order to enhance the illumination diffufed by their prophet; for it is probable that the idolatrous literature then known was abolifhed by the fanaticifm of the new fect. The chief poets are now found among the wandering Arabs in the country of Jof or Mareb, adjoining to Yemen on the E.[6] Some alfo appear in the towns, where they amufe the company in coffee houfes; in this, as in other refpects, refembling the Turkifh. The day is divided into twenty-four hours, extending from funfet to funfet. Niebuhr gives curious illuftrations of their aftronomy and fecret fciences, as they are called, or rather fanciful delufions. Phyficians are rare, and ill recompenfed, the chief medicine being univerfal temperance: and their fkill fcarcely exceeds the common terms of art to be found in the writings of Avicenna. The ancient treafures of Arabian literature are well known to the learned world; but few of thefe noble monuments were compofed in Arabia, being moftly produced in the conquered countries from Samarcand to Cordova.

Education. Education is not wholly neglected, and many of the common people can read and write; while thofe of rank entertain preceptors to teach their children and young flaves. Near every mofk there is commonly a fchool, the maflers, as well as the children of the poor, being fupported by legacies. In the large towns there are many other fchools, to which people of the middle clafs fend their fons, who are taught to read, write, and accompt. The girls are inftructed apart by women. In the chief cities are colleges for aftronomy, aftrology, philofophy, medicine, &c.; and in the little kingdom of Yemen there are two univerfities, or celebrated academies; one at Zebid for the Sunnis; and the other at Damar for the Zeidites. The interpretation of the Koran, with the hiftory of Mahomet and the firft chalifs, form an extenfive ftudy, the records being in a dead language.

Arabia has been compared to a cloke of frize, laced with gold, the fkirts alone prefenting cities and other marks of civilization, while the great mafs of the country is poffeffed by wandering tribes. The moft celebrated cities are Mecca and Medina; but being facred ground, the

Cities and Towns.

[6] Niebuhr, 93.

infidels

infidels are not permitted to approach; aad we are obliged to truſt to the inaccuracy and exaggeration of oriental writers. Mecca, to uſe the emphatic language of Gibbon,[7] "was known to the Greeks under the name of Macoraba; and the termination of the word is expreſſive of its greatneſs, which has not indeed, in the moſt flouriſhing period, exceeded the ſize and ſpopulouſneſs of Marſeilles. Some latent motive, perhaps of ſuperſtition, muſt have impelled the founders, in the choice of a moſt unpromiſing ſituation. They erected their habitations of mud or ſtone, in a plain about two miles long and one mile broad, at the foot of three barren mountains: the ſoil is a rock; the water even of the holy well of Zemzem is bitter or brackiſh; the paſtures are remote from the city; and grapes are tranſported above ſeventy miles, from the gardens of Tayef. The fame and ſpirit of the Koreiſhites, who reigned in Mecca, were conſpicuous among the Arabian tribes; but their ungrateful ſoil refuſed the labours of agriculture, and their poſition was favourable to the enterpriſes of trade. By the ſea-port of Gedda, at the diſtance only of forty miles, they maintained an eaſy correſpondence with Abyſſinia; and that Chriſtian kingdom afforded the firſt refuge to the diſciples of Mahomet. The treaſures of Africa were conveyed over the peninſula to Gerrha or Katif in the province of Bahrein, a city, built, as it is ſaid, of rock ſalt, by the Chaldean exiles: and from thence, with the native pearls of the Perſian gulf, they were floated on rafts, to the mouth of the Euphrates. Mecca is placed almoſt at an equal diſtance, a month's journey, between Yemen on the right and Syria on the left hand. The former was the winter, the latter the ſummer ſtation of her caravans; and their ſeaſonable arrival relieved the ſhips of India from the tedious and troubleſome navigation of the Red Sea. In the markets of Saana and Merab, in the harbours of Oman and Aden, the camels of the Koreiſhites were laden with a precious cargo of aromatics; a ſupply of corn and manufactures was purchaſed in the fairs of Boſtra and Damaſcus; the lucrative exchange diffuſed plenty and riches in the ſtreets of Mecca; and the nobleſt of her ſons united the love of arms with the profeſſion of merchandize."

Cities and Towns. Mecca.

[7] ix. 227.

Cities and Towns.

Other deſcriptions of this celebrated city are chiefly extended by an account of the Kaba or Houſe of God, which is here reſerved for the article of edifices. This city is ſaid to be well built of ſtone; but of the population and other intereſting circumſtances there are no details. The veneration paid to Mecca ſeems to have preceded the age of Mahomet, for Diodorus Siculus mentions a temple in this quarter which was reſpected by all the Arabs. The government of this holy city is veſted in a Sheref, who is a temporal prince; and his revenue is increaſed by the donations of Mahometan ſovereigns.

Medina.

Medina ſtands about 200 B. miles N. of Mecca, being, as well as the latter, about a day's journey from the ſhores of the Red Sea. It is, according to Niebuhr, a ſmall town, ſurrounded with a paltry wall, little remarkable except for the tomb of Mahomet.

By the account of Pliny, an ancient city of Arabia, ſix miles in circumference, called Mariaba, was deſtroyed by the legions of Auguſtus:* but in modern times Sana, or Saana, in Yemen, is reputed the chief city of Arabia. It is ſituated at the bottom of a mountain called Nikkum, near which is a ſpacious garden. Niebuhr informs us that this city is not very extenſive, as one may walk round it in the ſpace of an hour, ſo that the circuit cannot exceed four miles; and even of this ſmall ſpace a part is occupied by gardens.[8] The walls are of brick, with ſeven gates; and there are ſeveral palaces of burnt brick, or of ſtone; but the common houſes are of bricks dried in the ſun. There are ſeveral ſimſeras, or caravanſeras, for merchants and travellers. Fuel is extremely rare, though there be ſome pit-coal and peat; but wood is ſcarce, even in the Happy Arabia. There are excellent fruits, particular grapes of many varieties. About ſix miles to the north there is

Sana.

* Lib. vi. cap. xxviii. It was a town of the Baramalaces; and, according to D'Anville, of the Homorites, and now Mareb in the N. of Hadramaut. But Ptolemy places it more to the N., and it is improbable that the legions ſhould have penetrated ſo far, though the city may have been deſtroyed by a fleet with troops from the Red Sea. D'Anville's ancient Arabia is not ſufficiently laboured. It is chiefly founded on Abulfeda's curious deſcription, of which the beſt edition is at the end of La Roque's (or D'Arvieux) *Voyage dans la Paleſtine*, Paris, 1717, 8vo. The ſame author's *Voyage de l'Arabie Heureux*, 1716, is alſo intereſting.

[8] Nieb. Deſc. 201.

a plea-

a pleaſant dale, enlivened with ſeveral rivulets: and to the weſt is a conſiderable ſtream. CITIES AND TOWNS.

When ſuch is the chief city of Arabia, the deſcription of the others cannot be very intereſting. Judda, or Jedda, is the ſea port of Mecca. The town of Mocha ſtands in the Tehama, or plain country of Yemen, and was built about four centuries ago: it is now chiefly frequented by Engliſh veſſels from Hindoſtan. Aden is of ſtill leſs conſequence. Keſem belongs to the country called Mahrah: to the ſheik of this town, alſo called Keſchin, the noted iſle of Socotra belongs, which is celebrated for aloes;[9] and we are told by the author of the Periplus, that in his time it belonged to the country which produced frankincenſe. The province of Omon is divided among many ſheiks, but Roſtak is eſteemed the capital. Maſkat is however the moſt conſiderable town, and the beſt known to Europeans, having an excellent harbour, and being from early times a ſtaple of trade between Arabia, Perſia, and the Indies. It was taken by the Portugueſe in 1508, and they retained it for a century and a half. It is viſited by Engliſh ſhips from Hindoſtan; and ſuch is its conſequence, that the Imam or prince of Omon is often ſtyled Imam of Maſkat. Other Cities. Maſkat.

Lahſa, the capital of the province ſo called, is a large and well built town, ſtanding on a torrent which falls into a conſiderable bay oppoſite to the iſle of Bahrin, celebrated for the pearl fiſhery.[10] Our maps here inſert a conſiderable river called Aſtan; but this is probably the ſtream in Neged repreſented by D'Anville, and which, according to Niebuhr, is only a *wali* or brook, which runs after rains. Upon this river D'Anville, following ſome preceding map, and uncertain accounts, places a country and city called Jemama or Yemama.* This is the moſt ſingular feature in our maps, and is not reconcileable to the ac-

[9] Niebuhr, 248.

[10] Ib. 294. He, with D'Anville, regards Lahſa as inland, and this city does not appear in his map of the Perſian gulf. The iſle Bahrain ſhould rather be ſtyled Aual. Ib. 284.

* The maps of the beginning of laſt century here inſert Ayaman, anciently, as they ſay, called Arabia Felix, thus removing Yemen into the centre of Arabia Deſerta! Can this be the real ſource of Yemama? Gibbon, ix. 356, refers to Abulfeda for an account of Yamanah, which was in ruins in the thirteenth century.

Other Cities.

counts of Niebuhr. D'Anville, in his map of Aſia, ſays that Jemama is in Al Kardje, which is evidently the great province of Kerjé of Niebuhr, on the E. of Hejaz and Yemen; and in this province, the Daniſh traveller informs us, is the city of Amamé or Imamé, renowned for the prophet Moſeilama, whom Gibbon aſcribes to Yemama; and which town is in the diſtrict of Surſa. But this cannot correſpond with the Jemama of D'Anville, which is clearly in the province of Ared, which is bounded only by that of Lahſa on the E. Niebuhr alſo informs us that Aijana, a town of Ared, is remarkable for the new prophet Wahheb,* and our illuſtrious hiſtorian ſeems to have erred when he ſuppoſed it the ſame with Yemama; while the latter is probably a town of Kerjé, not far to the eaſt of Hejaz. However this be, the province and city of Jemama are perhaps mere fictions, which ſhould be diſmiſſed from the maps, with the river of Aſtan, which, if it exiſted, would certainly be followed by the caravans from Lahſa to Mecca, while they ſeem to prefer a ſandy deſert.†

Edifices.

Kaba.

Among the chief edifices of Arabia muſt be named the Kaba, or temple of Mecca; which, according to the repreſentation of Niebuhr, rather reſembles the old Aſiatic temples of Hindoſtan and Siam than a moſk, being an open ſquare, encompaſſed with a colonade, and ornamented with minarets, as the others are with pyramids or obeliſks. In this open ſpace, which, as well as that of Medina, it ſeems improper to call a moſk, there are five or ſix houſes of prayer, or chapels; while in the centre is a ſmall ſquare edifice, peculiarly ſtyled the Kaba, in which is fixed a black ſtone, in all appearance an early object of Arabian adoration, being either a Phallus, or one of thoſe ſtones venerated by the ancient orientals, who ſuppoſed them to have fallen from heaven, ſuch

* See Niebuhr, 299, for the conteſts between Ared and Lahſa.

† As Niebuhr, p. 297, informs us that Salemia, a town of Kerjé, is on the frontiers of Yemen, while D'Anville places it to the N. of his Yemama, it ſeems evident that the whole of this province is in a falſe poſition, and inſtead of lat. 25° ſhould probably be in lat. 18°, the error being ſeven degrees, or not much leſs than 500 Engliſh miles! None of the towns of Ared mentioned by Niebuhr can be found in D'Anville's map, except Jabrin, which is right. But theſe remarks proceed merely on the ſuppoſition that Niebuhr is exact. There is perhaps ſome confuſion of *Aijana* and *Imama*, and the former ſeems the Yamama of Abulfeda.

Salemia muſt approach to Joſ, a province E. of Yemen, full of ſands and deſarts, and bounded E. by the deſart of Omon. Nieb. 239.

ſtones not being wholly unknown even in modern natural hiſtory. For as there was a temple here prior to Mahomet, it would ſeem that he graſted his ſyſtem on the prejudices of his countrymen. Poſſeſſed of no architectural pretenſions, it is evident that the temple of Mecca owes its entire fame to Mahometan veneration. Edifices.

The manufactures of Arabia are of little conſequence, though the people be moſt ingenious and induſtrious, when encouraged by government and opportunities. Even in Yemen the works in gold and ſilver, and the coin itſelf, are produced by Jewiſh manufactories. In all Arabia there are neither windmills nor water-mills. Some muſkets are made in the country, but they are mere matchlocks of mean execution. At Mocha there is one glaſs-houſe: and there are in Yemen ſome linen manufactures, chiefly coarſe. Woollens are here too warm, even for the mountaineers. The ancients vainly aſſigned to Arabia the Happy many products, which her ſons imported from the Eaſt Indies, but aloes, myrrh, frankincenſe, though of inferior kind,[11] conſtitute with coffee the chief products of Arabia. There are beſides cocoa trees, pomegranates, dates, apricots, peaches, almonds, filberts, pears, figs, tamarinds. Such, from the account of Niebuhr, ſeem to be the chief vegetable products of Arabia; while the beſt frankincenſe, with ſpikenard, cinnamon, caſſia, cardamoms, and pepper, are imported from Hindoſtan; but being brought from Arabia to Egypt and Europe, it was raſhly concluded, in ancient and modern times, that they were products of Arabia, thence called the Happy, while this fortunate country is in truth far inferior to moſt European regions. The orange trees ſeem to be from Portugal, and the lemon from Italy; while the mangoſten and the cocoa appear, with others, to be imported from Hindoſtan. The balſam of Mecca is produced by an indigenous tree, called *amyris* by Forſkal. Senna is here common as in Egypt: but the cotton plants are inferior to the Indian. Manufactures. Products.

The Arabian intercourſe with Hindoſtan has greatly declined ſince the diſcoveries of the Portugueſe, whoſe ſuperior ſkill and maritime force eclipſed the ſmall veſſels of the Arabs. From Yemen are exported coffee, aloes, myrrh (the beſt of which is from Abyſſinia), oliban, or an Commerce.

[11] Niebuhr, 126; even this ſubſtance was chiefly from Abyſſinia and the Eaſt Indies.

inferior

Commerce. inferior kind of frankincenſe, ſenna, ivory, and gold from Abyſſinia. The European imports were iron, ſteel, cannons, lead, tin, cochineal, mirrors, knives, ſabres, cut glaſs, and falſe pearls. Niebuhr regards aloes and frankincenſe, (the latter chiefly from Hadramaut, which borders eaſtward on Omon, and muſt alſo be included in Arabia Felix,) as the only native articles of commerce before coffee came into uſe.[12]

CHAPTER II.

Climate and Seaſons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Mountains.—Deſerts.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Natural Curioſities.—Iſles.

Climate and Seaſons. IN the mountains of Yemen there is a regular rainy ſeaſon, from the middle of June to the end of September; but even then the ſky is rarely covered with clouds for twenty-four hours at a time; and during the remainder of the year a cloud is ſcarcely to be ſeen. At Maſkat, and in the eaſtern mountains, the rainy ſeaſon extends from the middle of November to the middle of February; and in Omon there is rain from the middle of February to the middle of April. In the plains of Yemen rain is ſometimes unknown for a whole year: and in July and Auguſt the thermometer will be 98°, while at Sana in the mountains it is 85°. It ſometimes, though rarely, freezes at Sana, while at Loheia the thermometer is 86°.[1] Hence the inhabitants of Yemen live as if they belonged to different climates: and even at a ſmall diſtance are found fruits and animals which might indicate remote countries. Thoſe meteors called falling ſtars are common, as in Perſia: but the aurora borealis is unknown in the ſouthern countries of Aſia. In general the wind from the ſea is moiſt, that from the interior deſarts dry: and in

[12] P. 245. [1] Ib. p. 4.

the

the northern deſarts are chiefly perceived the diſaſtrous effects of the burning wind called Samiel. CLIMATE AND SEASONS.

The general aſpect of Arabia preſents a central deſart of great extent, with a few fertile *oaſes* or iſles, as in Africa; while the flouriſhing provinces are thoſe ſituated on the ſhores of the ſea, which ſupplies rain ſufficient to maintain the vegetation. In Yemen there are mountains of conſiderable height, but chiefly barren and unwooded; while the temperature and plants, as has been ſeen, form a ſtriking contraſt with thoſe of the plains: yet the want of rivers, lakes, and perennial ſtreams, muſt diffuſe ideas of ſterility through the Arabian landſcape. Face of the Country.

The nature of the ſoil has not been indicated; but agriculture is occupied in the production of beautiful wheat, maize, *durra* a kind of millet, barley, beans, lentils, rape; with the ſugar cane, tobacco, and cotton. Rice ſeems unknown in Yemen, and oats throughout Arabia, the horſes being fed with barley, and the aſſes with beans. There are alſo cultivated *uars*, a plant which dyes yellow, and is exported in great quantities from Mocha to Omon; and *ſua*, uſed in dying red; likewiſe indigo. The grain in general yields little more than ten for one; but the durra ſometimes greatly exceeds that ſtandard. The plough is ſimple; and the pick is uſed inſtead of the ſpade. The chief exertion of agricultural induſtry is to water the lands from the rivulets and wells, or by conducting the rains. The harveſt is torn up by the roots; and forage cut with the ſickle. Barley is reaped near Sana in the middle of July: but the ſeaſon depends on the ſituation. At Maſkat wheat and barley are ſown in December, and reaped in March. Soil and Agriculture.

In the defect of rivers ſtrictly belonging to Arabia, the Euphrates and Tigris, which paſs through Irak Arabi, have been claimed by ſome geographers; and the Euphrates may be aptly conſidered as an Arabian river. But in Arabia Proper what are called rivers are mere torrents, which deſcend from the mountains during the rains, and for a ſhort period afterwards. It has been ſeen that the Aſtan of Neged, which in the map ſeems a conſiderable river, is only a brook of this deſcription. The moſt important river is probably that which riſes near Sana, and joins the Indian ſea below Harjiah. The ſmaller ſtreams of Yemen Rivers.

Rivers. may be traced in Niebuhr's map of that country. The little river of Krim flows from Mahrah into the ſame ſea; and is followed by two or three brooks in Omon. One or two ſmall ſaline lakes occur in ſituations encircled with hills, which prevent the water from paſſing.

Mountains. The chief range of mountains ſeems to proceed in the direction of the Red Sea; towards the N. not more than thirty miles diſtant, but ſometimes in the S. about one hundred and fifty, a circumſtance which imparts extent and fertility to Yemen. The hills of Omon ſeem a continuation of thoſe on the other ſide of the Perſian gulf; and the iſles in the mouth of that gulf may be regarded as ſummits of that range. In the country of Seger, commonly aſcribed to Hadramaut, there is a range of hills remarkable for the product of frankincenſe.

The direction of the other ranges cannot be aſcertained in the imperfect geography of the country. D'Anville has laid down a ridge paſſing through the centre, S. W. to N. E.; but as he has erred ſo groſsly as to place Ared in the S. W. and Kerjé in the N. E. of this ridge, while the reverſe is the truth, as appears from Niebuhr, who is completely ſilent concerning this chain, it cannot claim any authenticity. That great geographer has alſo placed the mountains of Shemer, the Schamer of Niebuhr, too far to the S. W., they being within ten days, or 200 miles, of Bagdad,[2] while by D'Anville's map they are more than ſeven degrees, or 420 g. miles; and it is probable that they really belong to the Ramleah, or mountains of ſand in D'Anville's map, which is open to moſt eſſential improvements in the whole interior parts of this country. In the diviſion called Arabia Petrea the celebrated mountain of Sinai muſt not be omitted, which preſents two ſublime ſummits of red granite.

Deſerts. The ſandy deſerts of Arabia are more ſtriking objects than the mountains, and might be laid down in the maps with conſiderable accuracy. From Omon to Mecca the greater part of Neged is one prodigious deſert, interrupted towards the frontiers of Hejaz and Yemen by Kerjé, containing the diſtrict of Surſa, and ſome fertile ſpots and towns, indicated by Niebuhr. The N. W. part of Neged preſents almoſt

[2] Niebuhr, 297.

a continued

a continued deſert, a prolongation as appears of the other, with an *oaſis*, Ared on the W. of Lahſa, including Jabrin, and ſome other places mentioned by the ſame author. In this deſert there is alſo the *oaſis* of mount Schamer; and perhaps ſeveral others, which may remain for a long time unknown to geography. Deserts.

The greater part of Arabia being compoſed of dry barren deſerts of ſand, wholly deſtitute of rivers, and containing but here and there a few ſcanty ſprings of brackiſh water, offers no adequate recompence to botanical inveſtigations. The vegetables in theſe diſtricts are of rare occurrence, and conſiſt chiefly of the ſaline ſucculent ſpecies able to endure the full force of a vertical ſun, with no other refreſhment than what is afforded by the nightly dews. The greater part of them belong to the genera of aloe, meſembryanthemum, euphorbia, ſtapelia and ſalſola: they have little external beauty, and when found in more propitious climates obtain notice only from their ſingularity: here, however, they ſerve to mitigate the thirſt of the parched camel, and to keep up the ſpirits of the toiling caravan, by breaking in occaſionally on the melancholy uniformity of the deſart. A more intereſting ſcene however is preſented to the botaniſt on the weſtern ſide of the Arabian deſert; here numerous rivulets deſcend from the mountains into the Red Sea, and ſcatter with a laviſh hand fragrance and verdure wherever they flow: the mountains themſelves too, whence theſe ſtreams originate, abound in vegetation, ſo that the plants in this part of Arabia may be conveniently diſtributed into three claſſes, namely, thoſe that inhabit the ſea ſhore, the plains, and the mountains. The firſt of theſe diviſions bears a near affinity to the ſcanty flora of the deſert: a ſandy ſoil impregnated with ſalt, and an open expoſure to the influence of the ſun, produce ſimilar effects in both ſituations. The champain country between the ſhore and the mountains, though traverſed by ſtreams, is yet too deficient in water to ſupport the luxuriant vegetation that diſtinguiſhes the plains of India: the lower parts are chiefly occupied by graſſes and other humble plants, which afford a moſt grateful ſuſtenance to the flocks and herds of the paſtoral tribes that wander over them. The ſides of the rivers, the vallies among the mountains, and the plains Botany.

Botany. at their feet, are far ſuperior to the reſt of the country. Here cultivation and nature ſeem to contend with each other in the richneſs of their productions; nor is it eaſy to aſſign exactly the limits of each: many of the Indian and Perſian plants, diſtinguiſhed for their beauty or uſe, have been tranſported hither in former ages, and are now found in a truly indigenous ſtate; this is probably the caſe with the tamarind, the cotton tree, the pomegranate, the banyan tree or Indian fig, the ſugar cane, and a multitude of valuable ſpecies and varieties of melons and gourds. Two valuable trees however are the peculiar boaſt of Arabia Felix, namely, the coffee (coffæa Arabica), found both cultivated and wild, and the amyris opobalſamum, from which is procured the balm of Mecca, the moſt fragrant and coſtly of all the gum reſins. There are no proper foreſts in Arabia, although groves and ſcattered trees are by no means unfrequent among the mountains. Of the palms, it poſſeſſes the date, the cocoa nut, and the great fan palm. The ſycamore fig, the plantain, the almond and apricot, the papaw, the bead tree, the mimoſa nilotica and ſenſitiva, and the orange, nearly compleat the catalogue of its native and cultivated trees. The liſt of ſhrubs and herbaceous plants does not contain many that would be intereſting to the general reader: among theſe however may be particularized the ricinus, the liquorice, and the ſenna, all uſed in medicine; and the balſam, the globe amaranth, the white lily, and the greater pancratium, diſtinguiſhed for their beauty and fragrance.

Zoology. The horſe is the glory of Arabian zoology. According to Zimmerman this animal is found wild in the extenſive deſerts on the N. of Hadramaut;[3] at leaſt ſuch may have been the caſe in ancient times, if it be not rather probable that the wild horſe of Tatary has paſſed through Perſia, and only been perfected in Arabia. They are here divided into two great claſſes, the *Kadiſhi*, or common kind, whoſe genealogy has not been preſerved; and the *Kochlani*, or noble horſes, whoſe breed has been aſcertained for two thouſand years, proceding, as they fable, from the ſtalls of Solomon. Theſe will bear the greateſt fatigues, and paſs whole days without food, living on air, to uſe the Arabian metaphor. They are ſaid to ruſh on a foe with impetuoſity;

[3] Zoologia Geographica, 1777, 4to. p. 140 from Leo Afric.

petuoſity; and it is aſſerted that ſome of this noble race, when wounded in battle, will withdraw to a ſpot where their maſter may be ſecure; and if he fall they will neigh for aſſiſtance. The Kochlani are neither large nor beautiful, nor is their figure at all regarded; their race, and hereditary qualities being the ſole objects of eſtimation. They are chiefly reared by the Beduins, in the northern deſerts between Perſia and Syria. The preſervation of the breed is carefully and authentically witneſſed; and the offspring of a Kochlani ſtallion with an ignoble mare is reputed *Kadiſhi*. The Arabian ſteeds are ſometimes bought at exceſſive rates by the Engliſh at Mocha. There is alſo in this country a ſuperior breed of aſſes, approaching in form and qualities to the mule, and ſold at high prices. Zoology.

This region, or Africa, ſeems alſo the native country of the camel, emphatically ſtyled by the orientals the ſhip of the deſert; being, by the expanſion of its feet, the faculty of bearing thirſt and hunger, and other qualities, peculiarly adapted by the author of nature to perambulate the ſandy waſtes, which would otherwiſe remain unpaſſable. Niebuhr obſerved camels of different kinds, and ſeems to decide the queſtion concerning the dromedary, by ſaying that this animal in Arabia and Egypt has always one hunch only, and can otherwiſe ſcarcely be diſtinguiſhed from the camel, but in being more light and ſpeedy. "As to dromedaries with two hunches I never ſaw any, except three in a town of Natolia, and they had been brought from the Crimea: they were ſo big and heavy that they might rather be ranged under a particular ſpecies of camels, than of dromedaries."[4]

The buffalo ſeems unknown, being an animal which delights in mud and water; but the cattle have generally a hunch on the ſhoulder. The breed of ſheep has not been particularly illuſtrated; but it would appear that both the wool and mutton are coarſe. The rock goat is ſaid to be found in the mountains of Arabia Petrea. The other animals are the jakkal, or chacal; the hyena towards the Perſian gulf; numerous monkies in the woods of Yemen; the jerboa, or rat of Pharaoh in Neged: there are alſo antelopes, and wild oxen, with wolves, foxes, and wild boars, and the large panther, called in Arabic *nemer*, and

[4] Niebuhr, 145.

Zoology. the *fath*, a ſmall panther. The tiger ſeems utterly unknown: and the lion only appears beyond the Euphrates. Among the birds may be named the pheaſant, common in the woods of Yemen, as the grey partridge is in the plains; while the oſtrich is no ſtranger in the deſerts. The birds of prey are eagles, vultures, falcons, and ſparrow-hawks. A bird of the thruſh kind, venerated becauſe it deſtroys the locuſts, is thought to come annually from Coraſan. Land tortoiſes abound; and are eaten by the Chriſtians in Lent. A little ſlender ſerpent, called baetan, ſpotted with black and white, is of a nature remarkably poiſonous, the bite being inſtant death. The locuſt is too numerous; and the natives eſteem the red as a fat and juicy food, and view it with no more averſion than ſhrimps, or prawns are beheld by us.

Mineralogy. The mineralogy of Arabia is of ſmall importance. Having no native gold, the people are ſtill addicted to the infatuation of alchymy. Nor is ſilver found, except mingled, as uſual, in the lead mines of Omon. There are ſome mines of iron in the diſtrict of Saade, in the N. of Yemen; but the metal is brittle. As moſt of the noted vegetable products of Arabia the Happy are now known to have been imported from Hindoſtan, ſo the beſt precious ſtones are from the ſame quarter. Thoſe agates containing extraneous ſubſtances, which from the town are called Mocha-ſtones, are brought from Surat, which alſo ſends great quantities to China.[5] The beſt carnelians alſo come from the gulf of Cambay. But Arabia produces onyxes in the province of Yemen; and the brown ſtone found near Damar ſeems a ſardonyx. Rock ſalt appears near Loheia. Niebuhr alſo obſerved in Ajemen pentagonal pillars of baſalt; with blueiſh alabaſter, ſelenite, and various ſpars. Not one of the gems appears to be produced in Arabia. Near Hamada, in a diſtrict of Yemen, called Kaukeban, there is a warm ſpring of mineral water.

Natural Curioſities. Several of thoſe uncommon appearances which geographers ſtyle natural curioſities may, no doubt, be found in this extenſive country, when more thoroughly explored. Niebuhr mentions that ſeveral

[5] Niebuhr, 125. He here remarks that the Turks have mines in the country of Diarbekr and of Sivas.

ſprings,

ſprings, which in other countries would become rivulets, here flow for a ſhort ſpace, and then ſink into an unknown ſubterranean courſe. Amidſt the deficiency of water, it is not ſurpriſing that the grand reſervoir near the ancient city of Mareb, though in a ſmall part a work of art, was regarded as a ſingular exertion of nature.[6] Mareb is ſtill the chief town of the province of Jof, about ſeventy-five B. miles N. E. from Sana, containing about three hundred mean houſes, with a wall and three gates. In an adjacent vale, about twenty B. miles in length, were united ſix or ſeven rivulets, running from the weſt and from the ſouth, partly from Yemen; and ſome ſaid to be perennial ſtreams full of fiſh. The two chains of mountains, incloſing this vale, approach ſo near at the eaſt end that the ſpace might be walked over in five or ſix minutes; or was about a quarter of a mile. This opening being ſhut by a thick wall the water was retained, and imparted particular advantages to agriculture. But the wall, conſtructed of large maſſes of hewn ſtone, to the height of forty or fifty feet, was neglected after the fall of the Sabean kingdom; and burſt in the middle, leaving only the ruins on both ſides, ſo that the water is now loſt in the deſert on the N. of Hadramaut. NATURAL CURIOSITIES.

BESIDES ſeveral iſles of little conſequence in the Arabian gulf, there are two iſlands which deſerve particular notice. Socotra, about 240 B. miles from the ſouthern coaſt of Arabia, appears in all ages to have belonged to that country, and to have been celebrated for the production of aloës, ſtill eſteemed ſuperior to any other. Niebuhr ſays that it belongs to the Sheik of Keſchin, a town of Hadramaut, as it did when the Portugueſe made diſcoveries in this quarter; and the author of the Periplus obſerves that it was ſubject to the country which produced incenſe, that is Hadramaut. The inhabitants are clearly of Arabian extract. There are two bays, and ſome ſecure harbours; and the iſle is alſo ſaid to produce frankincenſe, while ambergris and coral are found in the neighbouring ſeas. The iſle of Bahrin is in the Perſian gulf, near the Arabian coaſt, and remarkable for the great pearl fiſhery in its neighbourhood; but the revenue thence ariſing to the Sheik of Bu- ISLES. Socotra. Bahrin.

[6] Niebuhr, 210.

ſheer

Isles. ſheer was diminiſhed by the pretenſions of the Houls, a ſtrong Arabian tribe between Gombroon and cape Bardiſtan, who refuſed to pay for the permiſſion. The name *Bahrin* ſignifies *two ſeas*, being ſeemingly an abſurd modern appellation; for Abulfeda, as well as the Arabs of Lahſa, call the large iſle Aual, a name transferred by D'Anville, who in Arabia ſeems rather unfortunate, to the peninſula of Ser, about 360 B. miles to the E. The inhabitants of Aual, and the ſmaller iſles, are Arabs of the Chia perſuaſion. In the large iſle there is a fortified town; and in the whole groupe there may be forty or fifty mean villages.

ASIATIC ISLANDS.

Introduction.

General Arrangement of the Aſiatic Iſlands, including Auſtralaſia and Polyneſia.

HAVING thus completed the deſcription of the wide continent of Aſia, ſo far as the limits aſſigned to this work would admit, a difficult field of inveſtigation opens in the innumerable Aſiatic Iſlands, and thoſe ſituated in the Pacific, or more properly Great Oriental Ocean. The topics about to be treated will become more clear from the inſpection of Arrowſmith's chart of that ocean, or the Planiſphere on Mercator's projection, with that prodigious expanſe of water towards the middle. Hence it will appear that, though modern enterprize have failed in the diſcovery of a ſuppoſed Auſtral continent, (a hope and idea now diſmiſſed from geography,) yet the diſcoveries may be ſaid to conſtitute a fifth part of the world; which accordingly Fabri, and other foreign writers of ſkill in the ſcience, have admitted, under the name of *Auſtral Lands*, *Southern Indies*, and other denominations, including New Holland, New Guinea, New Britain, New Ireland, New Caledonia, New Zealand, the Friendly Iſles, Society Iſlands, the Marqueſas, and even the Sandwich Iſlands in the north.

Theſe regions are, however, of ſo wide and diſtinct a nature, conſiſting of almoſt a new continent in the ſouth of Aſia, and ſcattered groups of iſles in the Pacific, many of them nearer to South America than to Aſia, while they are chiefly not above twenty degrees to the ſouth of the equator, that the name of Auſtral Lands ſeems very objectionable, and that of Southern Indies ridiculous. Nor indeed can they well be

blended under one denomination, as was long ſince obſerved by the learned preſident De Broſſes, who, nearly half a century ago, propoſed that the countries to the ſouth of Aſia, namely New Holland, New Guinea, and New Zealand, &c., ſhould be ſtyled *Auſtralaſia*, and the numerous iſles in the Pacific *Polyneſia*, from a Greek term implying many iſlands.[1] The denominations propoſed by this learned author have appeared unexceptionable to moſt men of ſcience; but the abſurd names impoſed by ignorant ſeamen and map-makers of all countries have, as uſual, prevailed, whence we have new countries which bear not the moſt diſtant reſemblance of the old, and New South Wales has become a part of New Holland! It is deeply to be regretted that ſcientific works muſt continue to be diſgraced by names impoſed by whim and caprice, and that a Board of Nomenclature was not added to the Board of Longitude, to fix with due deliberation the appellations proper to be conferred. If there be a native name it ought, in every inſtance, to deſerve the preference, as length may be abreviated, and roughneſs ſmoothed; but where a general appellation is unknown to the ſmall ſavage tribes, the names of monarchs, and other great encouragers of diſcovery, and thoſe of eminent navigators, may be impoſed, with a Latin termination, ſo as to paſs into all European languages, with as little change as poſſible. It is to be wiſhed that even now a board of this kind were inſtituted, to be held in London, but attended by learned deputies from Portugal, Spain, Holland, and France, that the claims of prior diſcovery may be fairly inveſtigated, and the name of the firſt princely protectors or navigators impoſed, to the laſting preſervation of their memory. Amidſt the choice of denominations, that of *New* ſhould be diſmiſſed, as of all others the moſt abſurd and improper, and calculated to infer reſemblances where none exiſt.

As the name of Auſtralaſia has been adopted by many men of ſcience, in various extents and applications, it may be proper firſt to liſten to the original inventor.[2]

" But in this immenſe extent of regions, which are to form the object of the reſearches about to be detailed, how numerous are the diffe-

[1] Hiſtoire des Navigations aux Terres Auſtrales. Paris, 1756, 2 vols. 4to.

[2] De Broſſes, ib. i. 79.

ent countries, climates, manners, and races of mankind! The ſight would be dazzled and confounded if care were not exerted to relieve it, and fix its attention, by diviſions marked from diſtance to diſtance. Theſe ought to be diſtinguiſhed with regard to the progreſs of our knowledge, and at the ſame time with regard to the natural diſpoſition of the objects. Our globe is compoſed of three large extents of land, Aſia, Africa, and America;* and of three large extents of water, the Ethiopian, or Indian ocean, the Atlantic, and the Pacific. In like manner the auſtral world may be divided into three portions, each to the ſouth of the three above-mentioned. The firſt in the Indian ocean to the ſouth of Aſia, which may in conſequence be named *Auſtralaſia:* the ſecond in the Atlantic, which I ſhall call *Magellanica*, from the name of the diſcoverer, begins at the ſouthern point of the American continent, and comprehends all that may thence extend under the ſouthern point of Africa, where a long undiſcovered coaſt is ſuppoſed to exiſt. I ſhall compriſe in the third all that is contained in the vaſt Pacific ocean, and ſhall give to this diviſion the name of *Polyneſia*, on account of the great multitude of Iſlands."

Such were the ideas of that eminent writer, alike diſtinguiſhed for the extent of his erudition, the elegance and preciſion of his taſte, and the comprehenſion and clearneſs of his judgment. But it muſt be reflected that at the time of his intereſting compilation, the diſcoveries of our immortal Cook had not taken place, and the exiſtence of a Terra Auſtralis, or undiſcovered continent in the ſouth, was generally credited. The Magellanica of De Broſſes may therefore paſs into oblivion, as no continent, nor perhaps even iſles, exiſt to the ſouth of America, where indeed of all poſitions they were the leaſt to be expected. But the two other appellations begin more and more to be admitted among ſcientific men, from whom they will gradually paſs to the people, as ought to be the progreſs.

While the term *Auſtralaſia* may be juſtly applied to what is called New Holland, and the circumjacent lands, the name of that large iſland itſelf, ſo abſurdly joined with New South Wales, might perhaps

* Europe ſeems here conſidered by the learned Preſident as a mere elongation of the continent of Aſia.

be aptly exchanged for that of *Notaſia*, of the ſame ſenſe with the former, but uſed in a more limited acceptation.* A deſcription of this country naturally follows that of Aſia, and the Aſiatic iſlands in the Indian ocean; and will be properly ſucceeded by that of Polyneſia, or the iſlands in the Pacific; which are far remote from the American coaſt, but are connected by brief paſſages with Auſtralaſia, the Sandwich iſlands alone excepted, which may however be followed by groups to be diſcovered to the S. W. ſo as to be connected with Polyneſia. The reader needs ſcarcely be reminded that in this quarter alone of the world this remarkable exception occurs; for the iſlands belonging to both Americas, to Africa, and to Europe, are ſufficiently diſtinct and appropriated, while the name of Aſiatic iſles, enormous as Aſia itſelf, might be diffuſed to ſuch an extent, as to embroil the utmoſt powers of geographical deſcription, and preſent only vague confuſion, inſtead of ſcientific preciſion.

In the eye of ſome geologiſts the iſles of Sunda, the Moluccas, and others in the Indian ocean, are gradually enlarging, and may in time, with Auſtralaſia and Polyneſia, form a vaſt new continent; while one or other of the ancient continents will be ſubmerged under the ocean; and if the moſt exhauſted and uſeleſs muſt fall, Africa would periſh. But ſuch imaginary views are foreign to the preſent deſign, which only attempts a preciſe deſcription of what really exiſts; and the due connection and relation of the parts to each other; an object attended with many difficulties in this particular region of the globe. Before a proper arrangement can be followed it will be proper to fix ſome limits between the Indian and Pacific oceans.

As the continent of America divides the Atlantic, or Great Weſtern ocean, from the Pacific, or Great Eaſtern ocean, (both ſo termed in relation to the ancient and civilized world,) and as Africa divides the Atlantic from the Indian ocean, ſo, by parallel uſage and deduction, what is called New Holland may be conſidered as the fixed diviſion between the Indian and Pacific, thus claiming with juſtice the authority of a continent, waſhed by the Indian ocean on the weſt, and the Pacific on the eaſt; while a line drawn from the moſt prominent central capes,

* From the Greek word *notos*, the ſouth; as *auſter* is in the Latin.

in the north and ſouth, may be regarded as a boundary of theſe two oceans. The ſouthern extenſion of this imaginary line is of little moment; but in the north it muſt be conſidered as a diviſion of great importance to preciſe diſcuſſion, as the iſles on the weſt muſt be conſidered as ſtrictly Aſiatic, and intimately connected with the deſcription of Aſia; while thoſe on the right belong to Auſtralaſia, and Polyneſia. This diviſion muſt naturally and unavoidably depend on the obſervation of the wideſt channel between the Molucca iſlands,* and Papua, or New Guinea: and the degree of longitude, 130° from London, ſeems nearly to amount to a boundary. Hence Amboyna belongs to the Aſiatic iſles, while Timor-laut belongs to Auſtralaſia. The meridian of boundary paſſes through Ceram; but the proximity of that iſle to Amboyna may properly connect it with the Aſiatic iſles, with which Myſol may alſo be claſſed. From the N. W. extremity of Papua, or rather ſome ſmall iſlands lying at that extremity, a clear line may be drawn, following the ſame meridian, and leaving Gilolo among the Aſiatic iſles on the W. and thoſe of Pelew among the Polyneſian in the Pacific. This line then bending N. W. would include the Philippine iſlands and the Baſhees, paſſing to the S. of Formoſa; the other limits and appellations being ſufficiently clear.

Such may therefore be the aſſumed boundary between the Indian ocean, and Chineſe, &c. ſea on the W. and the Pacific on the E. and between the Aſiatic iſles, and Auſtralaſia and Polyneſia. The boundary between the two latter great diviſions may be traced in conſonance, as would ſeem, with the ideas of M. De. Broſſes, by regarding what is called New Holland as a continent, or great leading iſland, with which thoſe moſt adjacent muſt be regarded as connected. Hence Papua belongs to Auſtralaſia: and a line drawn in the latitude of three or four degrees to the N. of the equator, and then paſſing S. in the meridian of 170° E. from Greenwich, ſo as to include the New Hebudes, thence in the parallel of 30° S. gradually ſtretching to 175° W. from Green-

* This name, originally confined to five ſmall iſlands, has been extended by the French geographers to a large group between Borneo and New Guinea.

Mr. Foreſt, p. 31, regards Gilolo as the boundary between the Indian ocean and Pacific.

ASIATIC ISLES.

Arrangement of thoſe in the Oriental Archipelago.—1. *Iſles of Sunda, or Sumatran Chain.*—2. *Borneo.*—3. *Manillas.*—4. *Celebezian Iſles.*—5. *Spice Iſlands.*

THIS diviſion, as already explained, comprehends what are called the Iſles of Sunda, the Moluccas, and the Philippines. The iſles of Sunda are ſo called from the Sound, or Strait, between Sumatra and Java; and conſiſt of theſe two iſlands, with Borneo; and ſome include Celebez, which others aſcribe to the Moluccas. Some geographers conſider the line of iſlands, forming as it were an elongation of Java, as belonging to thoſe of Sunda, while D'Anville rather regards theſe as part of the Great Moluccas.

An able naturaliſt, impreſſed with this confuſion, has attempted a new nomenclature.[1] Under the name of *Malayan* iſles, he arranges Sumatra, Java, Borneo, by an appellation ſufficiently vague and inapplicable, as the Malays extend to innumerable other iſlands. Another great diviſion, that of the Philippine iſlands, he terms the *Manillas*, including Mindanao, whence he paſſes to the Sooloo iſlands, thoſe of Sangir, and to Celebez, here ſeeming to loſe ſight of arrangement. From Balli, on the E of Java, what he calls the *Timorian chain* includes Sumbava, (the Cumbava of D'Anville,) Florez, Timor, &c. but when he adds Timorlaut, he again forgets preciſion; and his whole chain is ſo intimately connected with Java that the ſeparation cannot be applauded. Our ingenious author next deſcribes *New Holland;* and returns to what he calls the *Spicey Iſlands*, beginning with Arroo, an

[1] Pennant, Outlines of the Globe, vol. iv.

appendage

CHART
of the
EAST INDIA ISLANDS
Exhibiting the several Passages
between the INDIAN
and PACIFIC OCEANS.
Canton
Changonge
Arakan
Ava
Pegu
Martaban
Gulf of Martaban
Siam
Camboja
Cochin China
Tsiompa
Gulf of Siam
Andaman Islands
Nicobar Islands
Tantalam
Malacca
Strait of Malacca
Sincapore
Pulo Pinang
Achcen
Sumatra
Java
Java Sea
Borneo
Celebes
Molucca Passage
Banda Islands
Timor
Flores
Sumbawa
Bali
Lombock
Macassar
Bantam
Batavia
Sourabaya
Samarang
Billiton
Banca
Philippine Islands
Manilla
Luzon
Mindoro
Magindanao
Palawan
Formosa
Hainan
Pratas
Bashee Islands
Babuan
Bab Byanes
Cape Engano
Divilacan
Lingayan Bay
Bay of Manilla
Calamaines
Guiguan
Damaran
Suriago
Butuan
Tandag
Peloo Islands
Balambangan
Banguey
Malloodoo Bay
Tawee Tawee
Sooloo
Sooloo Harb.
Tonquil Harb.
Zongan
Callao
Pracel
Cancao
Sapata
Pulo Condor
Balbuamont
Comerin Bay
Schouten Bay
Fort Cornwallis
Tavay
Merguy
Mergui
Dommel
Lit. Andaman
I. St. Matthew
Bangri
Salanga I.
G. Samhelong
Patuna
Ridang I.
Lanuary
Pt. Way
Pt. Brasse
Pt. Brala
Achcen
Nalaboo
Ariqua
Hog I.
Barous
Tappanooly
Miselas
Pt. Nyas
Natal
Aver Bongy
Pt. Botoa
Pt. Mintuan
Tecoo
Padang
Pora or I. of Good Fortune
Poggy
Ayer Rajah
Indrapoor R.
Mocomoca
Bencoolen
Manna
Old Croee
Bugano
Strait of Sunda
Carimon Java
Lubec
Arentes
G. Solombo
Strait of Bantam
Clapp I.
Wine Cooper's I.
Sheribon
Pt. Caniban
Xoesa Baron
Samarang
Sourabaya
Calion
Hog I.
C. Sandang
Kungelang
Ombuy
Wetter
Kema
Damme
Sannatta
Cape Valche
Timorlaut
Laurut
Token Besseys
Calaur Isles
Salayr
Key Watela
Little Key
Great Key
Aroo
Tobi
Gilolo
Morty
Dampier's Archipelago
Papua or New Guinea
Great Bay
Dory
Myssol
Lufumalula
Xulla Mangoli
Xulla Besse
Bouro
Ceram
Amboina
Banda Islands
Key Watela
Little Key
Laurut
Timorlaut
Cape Valche
Sandalwood I.
Timor
Leti
Mera
Lackor
Roma
Pantar
Lomblem
Ombay
Pulo Cambing
Pulo Panjang
Pulo Condor
Pulo Timon
Gr. Anambas
S. Anambas
N. Anambas
G. Natuna
Burning I.
Burrulo
Sedang
Tuballar I.
Maratuba I.
Sambas
Kannenongan I.
Tandjong Datu
Borneo
Tirooon
Laboan
Labuan
T. Loombelan
Tawee Tawee
Sooloo
Salibabo Islands
Sangir
Siao
Morty
Riao
Dangerous Shoal
L. Northe I.
St. Andrew's I.
St. David's I.
Peloo Islands
Tondoly
Manado
C. Rivers
Tomini or Gunong Tella Bay
Palos
Kilis Harb.
Toto Bay
Mamoo
Bony
Bay of Bony
Thinly
Inhubiad
Macassar
Strait of Macassar
Celebes
Molucca Passage
Passir Town
Benjarmassia
Flat Point
Mandawee
Kootee Lema
Tambora
Sambhar
Billiton
Caremata
Joor Soro
Banca
Strait of Banca
Pora or I. of Good Fortune
Poggy
Mocomoca
Bencoolen
Manna
Tulumbong River
Poulo Pt.
Old Croee
Bugano
Java Sea
Java
Sunda
Batavia
Carimon Java
Lubec
Arentes
G. Solombo
Strait of Bantam
Bantam
Clapp I.
Wine Cooper's I.
Sheribon
Pt. Caniban
Xoesa Baron
Samarang
Sourabaya
Calion
Hog I.
C. Sandang
Kungelang
Ombuy
Wetter
Kema
Damme
Sannatta
Cape Valche
Timorlaut
Laurut
Token Besseys
Calaur Isles
Salayr
Key Watela
Little Key
Great Key
Aroo
Tobi
Gilolo
Morty
Dampier's Archipelago
Papua or New Guinea
Great Bay
Dory
Myssol
Lufumalula
Xulla Mangoli
Xulla Besse
Bouro
Ceram
Amboina
Banda Islands
Sandalwood I.
Timor
Leti
Mera
Lackor
Roma
Pantar
Lomblem
Ombay
Pulo Cambing
Pulo Panjang
Pulo Condor
Pulo Timon
Gr. Anambas
S. Anambas
N. Anambas
G. Natuna
Burning I.
Burrulo
Sedang
Tuballar I.
Maratuba I.
Sambas
Kannenongan I.
Tandjong Datu
Borneo
Tirooon
Laboan
Labuan
T. Loombelan
Tawee Tawee
Sooloo
Salibabo Islands
Sangir
Siao
Morty
Riao
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L. Northe I.
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Peloo Islands
Tondoly
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Tomini or Gunong Tella Bay
Palos
Kilis Harb.
Toto Bay
Mamoo
Bony
Bay of Bony
Thinly
Inhubiad
Macassar
Strait of Macassar
Celebes
Molucca Passage
Passir Town
Benjarmassia
Flat Point
Mandawee
Kootee Lema
Tambora
Sambhar
Billiton
Caremata
Joor Soro
Banca
Strait of Banca
Pora or I. of Good Fortune
Poggy
Mocomoca
Bencoolen
Manna
Tulumbong River
Poulo Pt.
Old Croee
Bugano
Java Sea
Java
Sunda
Batavia
Carimon Java
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Kungelang
Ombuy
Wetter
Kema
Damme
Sannatta
Cape Valche
Timorlaut
Laurut
Token Besseys
Calaur Isles
Salayr
Key Watela
Little Key
Great Key
Aroo
Tobi
Gilolo
Morty
Dampier's Archipelago
Papua or New Guinea
Great Bay
Dory
Myssol
Lufumalula
Xulla Mangoli
Xulla Besse
Bouro
Ceram
Amboina
Banda Islands

appendage of New Guinea, and which, by his own account, produces ſago, not ſpice. The iſles of Banda follow, with Amboyna, Ceram, Bouro, &c. Mr. Pennant next deſcribes the Molucca iſlands, including Gilolo. His *Papuan iſlands* are on the N. W. part of *Papua*, or *New Guinea*, which follows with ſome other iſles; and after deſcribing *New Britain* and *New Ireland*, he again returns to *Papua*. If the ingenious author had ſedulouſly endeavoured to render confuſion more confuſed, he could not have followed a better plan: but what preciſion can there be in the geography of theſe regions, in which a moſt able and intelligent writer has been recently ſo much bewildered?

An inſpection of the maps and charts of this part of the globe will ſhew that a great chain of iſlands, connected with much proximity, extends from Sumatra N. W. to Lackal or Lachal S. E. This chain includes Sumatra, Java, Balli, Sumbava, Florez, and Timor, as the chief iſles; with Sumba in the S., and in the N. Madura, Billiton, Banca, &c. This chain, divided and diſtinguiſhed by the hand of nature, might either be termed the Sumatran iſlands, from the chief, or the received name of Iſles of Sunda may be extended and reſtricted to this group; which, beſides the ſtrait ſo called, preſents many other ſounds or paſſages, from the Indian ocean towards the Pacific and the Chineſe ſea.

Borneo, an iſland of vaſt extent, ſhould not be conſidered as belonging to any group; but the ſmall iſles around it may be termed the Bornean iſlands, as the Sooloos, Pulo Laut, Anamba, Natuna.

The Philippine iſlands may already be regarded as the moſt regular and preciſe group in theſe ſeas, including the Baſhees, and other little groups in the north, and Mindanao and Palawan in the ſouth.

There remains the large iſland of Celebez, which may be conſidered as grouped with Shulla, Boutan, Salayar, &c., and the whole may be termed the Celebezian iſles.

The Molucca iſlands, an ancient and venerable name, are properly only five of ſmall ſize, on the weſt of Gilolo; but it ſeems proper to extend

extend this appellation to Gilolo, Myſol, Ceram, Amboyna and Banda.* The remaining iſles in the S. E. belong to Papua in Auſtralaſia.

Theſe five diviſions, 1. the Sumatran iſles, or thoſe of Sunda: 2. Borneo, and the Bornean iſles: 3. the Philippines: 4. the Celebezian iſles: and 5. the Moluccas, or Spice Iſlands, are not only indicated by the hand of nature, but ſeem ſufficient for a deſcription of this vaſt archipelago.

1. The Isles of Sunda, or the Sumatran Chain.

This diviſion, as already explained, compriſes Sumatra, Java, Balli, Lombok, Sumbava, Florez, and Timor; with ſeveral iſles of leſs note in the vicinity of theſe.

Sumatra. Sumatra is an iſland of great extent, being not leſs than 950 B. miles in length, by about 200 in breadth; for on ſo vaſt a ſcale are the regions connected with Aſia, that Great Britain, if ſituated in the oriental archipelago, would only in ſize rival Sumatra and Borneo. The Engliſh ſettlement of Bencoolen in the S. E. part of this iſland, has occaſioned particular attention to its nature and productions, eſpecially ſince Mr. Marſden publiſhed an ample and intelligent account of this intereſting iſland, from which this brief deſcription ſhall be abſtracted.[1] It was certainly unknown to the ancients, the information of Ptolemy terminating, as before mentioned, conſiderably to the north, and the mountain of Ophir, whence ſome have ſuppoſed this country known to Solomon, is a modern European denomination. The conqueſts and diſcoveries of the Mahometans, in Aſia and Africa, remain a moſt important object of geographical inveſtigation; and it is certain that the Arabs in the ninth century had diſcovered regions little known in Europe till the ſixteenth. Among theſe was Sumatra; which ſeems alſo, by an unaccountable depravation, to be the *Leſſer* Java of Marco Polo;†

* Even Magindano, or Mindanao, is by the natives called Molucca Bazar, or the great Molucca; Foreſt, p. 305: ſo there can be no ſolid reaſon for reſtricting the term to the little Moluccas.

[1] Hiſtory of Sumatra, 1784, 4to. 2d edit.

† Marſden. p. 2 and 280. This ingenious writer ſays that the Arab travellers, 1173, call this iſle Ramni, for which he quotes Herbelot. In this he miſtakes the date of the manuſcript for the date of the journey, which was A. D. 851.

but his Greater Java may probably be Borneo, for he deſcribes it as being 3000 miles in circuit, while the leſſer is 2000. A chain of mountains runs through the whole iſle, the ranges being in many parts double and treble, generally nearer to the weſtern coaſt, where they approach within twenty miles of the ſea; but the height is not ſo conſiderable as to retain ſnow. Mount Ophir, immediately under the equinoctial line, is 13,842 feet above the ſea, only yielding about 2000 feet to mount Blanc. This ſeems almoſt the only Aſiatic mountain which has been accurately meaſured; and it is not improbable that the northern mountains of Tibet, and even thoſe of Caucaſus, would be found greatly to exceed the higheſt Alps, the mountains being probably on as grand a ſcale as the rivers and other features of that immenſe continent. Between the ridges of mountains are elevated plains, with lakes and water-falls, one of which is from the ſummit of a conic mountain. There are many rivers on the weſtern coaſt, but commonly impeded by ſand banks, ſo as to preſent few means of navigation. In the midſt of what is called the torrid zone, the thermometer ſeldom riſes above 85°, while in Bengal it attains 101°; and inland the inhabitants of the mountains (which alone form zones) uſe fires to diſpel the morning cold; yet froſt, ſnow, and hail are unknown. Thunder and lightning are frequent, particularly during the N. W. monſoon. The year has two diviſions, called the rainy and dry monſoons, the S. E. or dry, beginning about May and ending with September; the N. W., or wet, beginning in November and ending about March; the intermediate months, April and May, October and November, being variable: on the weſt coaſt the ſea breeze begins about ten in the forenoon, and continues till ſix in the evening; being ſucceeded by the land breeze during the night. The ſoil is generally a ſtiff reddiſh clay, covered with a layer of black mould, the ſource of perpetual verdure; but three quarters of the iſle, eſpecially towards the ſouth, preſent an impervious foreſt. On the weſt, between the mountains and the ſea, there are large ſwamps; but even here the face of the country is remarkably broken and uneven. There ſeem to be many mines of gold,* though SUMATRA.

* Chiefly near Padan, ib. 133. What he ſtyles white rock or marble is quartz.

SUMATRA. moſtly neglected; and the copper is mingled with that metal. There are excellent ores of iron and ſteel: and that rare mineral, tin, is one of the chief exports, being principally found near Palimbang on the eaſtern ſhore, a continuation probably of the rich beds of Banca. Gold is found near Bencoolen, and in other places, but of inferior quality. The little iſland of Poolo Piſang, cloſe to the foot of mount Poogong, is moſtly a bed of rock cryſtal. The *nappal* ſeems a kind of ſoap rock: and petroleum alſo appears. There are ſeveral volcanic mountains in Sumatra, as in moſt of the other iſlands of the oriental archipelago, but eruptions are unfrequent. After an earthquake a rent was obſerved in the ground for a quarter of a mile, from which a bituminous matter is ſaid to have ſwelled. On the ſhores are many ledges of coral rocks, a circumſtance frequent in this quarter of the world. The effects of the ſurf are ſingular, and have been minutely detailed by Mr. Marſden, who aſcribes them to the trade, or perpetual, winds, between the parallels of 30° north and ſouth.

The inhabitants are vaguely divided into the Mahometans of the coaſt and the inland Pagans: but our author has conſidered the various races with more exact detail. The Malays, now ſo called, ſeem to be recent ſettlers, and their language a dialect of a ſpeech moſt widely extended, from Malacca, and perhaps the ſouth of Hindoſtan, nearly as far as the weſtern coaſts of America, through the innumerable iſlands of the Pacific. By the account of Mr. Marſden there are inland races, of whom the Googoo are covered with long hair, and little ſuperior to the Ourang Outangs of Borneo. The chief native ſovereignty is that of Menang Cabow, but the Rejangs ſeem to retain the pureſt race and manners. They are rather ſhort and ſlender: the noſes of infants are flattened, and their ears extended; but the eyes are dark and clear, and among the ſouthern women often reſemble the Chineſe. The complexion is properly yellow, being without the red tinge, waich conſtitutes a tawney or copper colour: but the ſuperior claſs of women fair, and commonly of not unpleaſing countenances, and the nails are often tinged red as in Mahometan countries. In the mountainous parts large wens or goitres are frequent, as in the mountains of Hindoſtan and Tibet,

Tibet, proceeding perhaps from the denſe miſts, which affect the glands of the throat and occaſion tumours, that, from the conſtant repetition of the cauſe, become irremovable. The chief diſtinction between the natives and the Malays of the coaſt ſeems to be, that the former are fairer and ſtronger. The original cloathing is made of the inner bark of trees, as in Otaheite; but the dreſs of the Malays conſiſts of a veſt, a robe, and a kind of mantle, with a girdle, in which is the *crees*, or dagger. They wear ſhort drawers, and there is no covering for the legs or feet: a fine cloth is wrapt round the head, which on journies is covered with a wide hat. Both ſexes file their teeth, and ſtain them black. The villages are commonly on hills, and ſurrounded with fruit trees, the balli, or common hall, being in the centre. The houſes are of wood and bamboos, covered with leaves of palm, ſtanding on pillars, and ſcaled by a rude ladder. The furniture is of courſe ſimple, and the common food rice; ſago, though common, being leſs uſed than in the iſlands further to the eaſt. For the agriculture, and other intereſting circumſtances, our author may be conſulted, who obſerves that the Malay countries, though beautiful in appearance, are generally of an unfertile ſoil, when applied to purpoſes of uſeful cultivation: and the facts which he mentions ſeem to leave no doubt of this unexpected truth. The horſes are ſmall, but well made, and hardy: the cows and ſheep alſo diminutive, the latter probably from Bengal. Here are alſo found the elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, tiger, bear, otter, porcupine, deer, wild hog, civet cat, with many varieties of the monkey. The buffalo is employed in domeſtic labour. Among birds, the Sumatran or Argus pheaſant is of diſtinguiſhed beauty. The jungle fowl, or wild poultry, alſo appear; and there is a breed in the ſouth of remarkable height, likewiſe found in Bantam on the weſt of Java, which gives name to the well known ſmall breed. The houſe lizard will run on the ceiling of a room, being the largeſt animal that can walk in an inverted poſition; and inſects ſwarm, particularly the deſtructive termites. The moſt abundant article is pepper, the object of our ſettlement; being produced by a creeping plant reſembling a vine. The white pepper is procured by ſtripping the outer huſk from the ripe grains. SUMATRA.

SUMATRA. Camphor is another remarkable product, being found in the tree in a concrete cryſtallization: camphor oil is the product of another kind of tree. Benzoin is the gum or reſin of another tree; and caſſia, a coarſe kind of cinnamon, found in the central parts of the country. Rattans are exported to Europe as walking canes. There are three kinds of cotton, the annual, and the perennial or ſhrub. "The ſilk cotton (bombax ceiba) is alſo to be met with in every village. This is to appearance, one of the moſt beautiful raw materials the hand of nature has preſented. Its fineneſs, gloſs, and delicate ſoftneſs, render it, to the ſight and touch, much ſuperior to the labour of the ſilkworm; but owing to the ſhortneſs and brittleneſs of the ſtaple, it is eſteemed unfit for the reel and loom, and is only applied to the unworthy purpoſe of ſtuffing pillows and mattreſſes. Poſſibly it has not undergone a fair trial in the hands of our ingenious artiſts, and we may yet ſee it converted into a valuable manufacture. It grows in pods from four to ſix inches long, which burſt open when ripe. The ſeeds entirely reſemble the black pepper, but are without taſte. The tree is remarkable, from the branches growing out perfectly ſtraight and horizontal, and being always three, forming equal angles at the ſame height: the diminutive ſhoots likewiſe grow flat; and the ſeveral gradations of branches obſerve the ſame regularity to the top. Some travellers have called it the umbrella tree, but the piece of furniture called a dumb waiter exhibits a more ſtriking picture of it."[*] Coffee trees are univerſally planted, but the fruit is not excellent. The ebony tree abounds in the foreſts, and the banian tree ſpreads as uſual to a vaſt extent, as it drops roots and fibres from certain parts of the boughs. The commerce is chiefly with Hindoſtan and China. The Malays excel in gold and ſilver fillagree, and in weaving ſilk and cotton; but other manufactures are imperfect, and the ſciences little cultivated. Beſides the Malay, ſeveral languages are ſpoken, which ſeem however to have a manifeſt affinity among themſelves, and with that widely diffuſed ſpeech which may be called the Polyneſian, as it is diffuſed through innumerable iſlands in the Pacific. The Rejang and Batta are the chief internal languages, written in characters totally diſtinct, a ſingular circumſtance, and which ſeems

[*] Marſden, 127.

to

to overturn the ideas concerning the ſuppoſed difficulty in the invention of alphabets. Widely removed from the ſavage tribes of Africa and America, even the rudeſt tribes of Sumatra and the other Aſiatic iſles, as far as the utmoſt bounds of Polyneſia, diſplay a certain degree of civilization. The panjeran or prince preſides over many magiſtrates; but his government is limited, his power being confined by his poverty. Laws are unknown, the chiefs rendering judgment according to cuſtoms; but the Engliſh reſidents have drawn up a little code of laws, regulated by the uſages. Moſt crimes are compenſated by money, murder itſelf not excepted. The difficulties attending marriage form an exception to the general cuſtoms of uncivilized countries, and the general chaſtity ſeems remarkable. The celebration is commonly in the balli or village hall, and is accompanied with dances and ſongs. Polygamy is practiſed, ſeeming to be connected, as Mr. Marſden has obſerved, with the idea of purchaſing a wife, inſtead of receiving a dower with her. Combats of cocks and quails are among the moſt favourite amuſements, with pyrrhic dances, dice, and other games. The uſe of opium is extenſive, but rarely leads to other exceſſes. What is called a *muck*, by the natives *mongamo*, rather proceeds from revenge, or a ſenſe of oppreſſion, than from intoxication; and the native ferocity requires no ſtimulant. Parturition is here brief and eaſy; and the mother in a few hours walks to the bath. The dead are buried, and the graves never diſturbed. The Rejangs, according to our author, have no religion; but they believe in angels or ſpiritual beings, and ſeem to have ſome idea of the tranſmigration of ſouls. The ſea is an object of particular veneration, as natural among iſlanders. The Chriſtian religion is unknown in Sumatra, the miſſionaries having unaccountably neglected this large iſland, while St. Francis Xavier (Shavier), called the apoſtle of the Indies, converted many thouſands in the more eaſtern iſlands, where however the light vaniſhed with the apoſtle. The manners of the Lampons, in the ſouthern part of the iſle, are more licentious than in the other provinces. For an account of Menang Cabul, the principal Malay ſtate, though the ſultan be ſcarcely ſuperior to a raja, the ingenious author ſo often quoted may be conſulted.[3] The

SUMATRA.

[3] Marſden, 281.

Sumatra. people ſeem the ſame with thoſe of Malacca; but the author has ſtrangely embroiled the queſtion, by ſuppoſing that the Malays never planted any colony before they became Mahometans. The Engliſh poſſeſs two ſettlements in the country of Batta, where human fleſh is ſtill eaten, but reſtricted to that of priſoners taken in war and capital offenders, an obſervation which perhaps extends univerſally wherever this practice is known to exiſt. The kingdom of Acheen in the N. W. extremity of the iſland carries on a conſiderable trade with the coaſt of Coromandel. The natives are more ſtout and tall, and of a darker complexion than the other Sumatrans. After Gama had paſſed the Cape of Good Hope in 1497, the importance of the city of Malacca became known, and it was ſoon after ſeized by theſe invaders, whoſe proximity led to ſeveral diſcuſſions and conteſts with the northern powers of Sumatra, in conſequence of which the kingdom of Acheen became remarkable in the hiſtory of theſe regions; and in 1615 the monarch attacked Malacca with five hundred ſmall ſhips, but was defeated: nor is this petty ſovereignty unnoted in the ſubſequent tranſactions of the Dutch and Engliſh.

Several ſmall iſles encompaſs Sumatra. Banca is particularly celebrated for its tin.* Of Billeton little is known; nor of the iſles that lie between Sumatra and Malacca called Pitti, and other names, with the common addition of *Pulo*, which in theſe ſeas appears to imply an iſland, being probably a Malay term.† On the W. the Nassau or Poggy iſles have been lately noted for their inhabitants, diſſimilar from their neighbours, and approaching the Otaheitans in the amiable ſimplicity of their manners, as well as in their perſonal appearance; while their colour, like that of the Malays, is light brown or copper.‡

Java. The large and intereſting work of Mr. Marſden has led to thoſe details concerning Sumatra; but the account of the other iſlands muſt be more reſtricted. Java is not only an extenſive iſland, about 650 B.

* The induſtrious tranſlator of Stavorinus, vol. i. p. 357, ſays that theſe mines were only diſcovered in 1710 or 1711, and though the Dutch receive about three millions of pounds weight, the veins ſeem inexhauſtible.

† This is confirmed by Thunberg's vocabulary of the Malay, ſo that Pulo is a ridiculous addition in maps.

‡ Aſ. Reſ. vi. 77.

miles

miles in length by about 100 of medial breadth, but is remarkable for the city of Batavia, the celebrated capital of the Dutch poſſeſſions. This iſland, like the former, abounds with foreſts, and preſents an enchanting verdure. It ſeems alſo interſected by a ridge of mountains, like a ſpine pervading its length.' Batavia is ſtrongly fortified with walls, and a citadel towards the ſea. There are many canals about four feet in depth, and the town is large, and well built of ſtone. This metropolis of the oriental archipelago preſents many nations and languages; and the Chineſe conſtitute the greater part of the inhabitants, being contented for the ſake of gain to forget the tombs of their anceſtors, and the laws of their country againſt emigration.* The Malay language, the French of the eaſt, is here univerſally underſtood. The ſtreets are planted with large trees, which practice, with the Dutch canals, probably contributes to the unhealthineſs of this ſpot. The heat is not ſo intenſe conſidered in itſelf, being between 80° and 86°, as from the low ſituation of the town, and the murky exhalations from the bogs, canals, and a muddy ſea, whence, from nine o'clock till four, it is impoſſible to walk out, and it is uſual to change linen twice a day. The ſun being nearly vertical, riſes and ſets about ſix throughout the year; but the nocturnal repoſe is infeſted by moſkitos. In the evening, from ſix to nine, parties are formed, and intemperance aſſiſts the poiſon of the climate. The water is alſo of a bad quality; and it appears abſolutely unaccountable that a people poſſeſſed of common judgment ſhould have ſelected this among ten thouſand preferable ſituations in the various iſles. The Javaneſe are of a yellow complexion, and not unpleaſing lineaments: they are generally Mahometans. Their coin is of lead, as in Sumatra and Borneo. The Chineſe are the moſt induſtrious claſs, both in trade and agriculture. The air is ſo unwholeſome, from fetid fogs and other cauſes, that dyſenteries and putrid fevers deſtroy prodigious numbers; and of three ſettlers it is rare that one outlives the year. The rainy ſeaſon begins with December, and laſts till March. Crocodiles abound in the rivers, as in moſt of the oriental

Java.

Batavia.

[3] Thunberg, ii. 213. For a tolerable map of Java ſee the Voyage of Stavorinus, 1798, v. i. p. 313, where there is alſo a long and minute deſcription of the iſland.

* The Dutch Governor General diſplays a pomp approaching to royalty.

iſles

Java. iſles. Java is divided into three or four principalities, the chief being the emperor of Surikarta. Near Cheribon are a ſplendid tomb and moſk, ranked among the moſt magnificent antiquities of the eaſt. Thunberg mentions ſeveral volcanoes, one of which had overwhelmed with aſhes a great number of coffee plantations. His journey to the interior mountains is intereſting to the botaniſt; but the thickneſs of the foreſts appears to have prevented him from any general views of the iſland which might be ſerviceable to geography. The products reſemble thoſe of Sumatra; and the exiſtence of the poiſonous tree, which has ſupplied Dr. Darwin with a highly poetical deſcription, appears to to be completely confuted.

The ſmall iſle of Madura, on the N. of Java, had its independent prince, whoſe ſufferings under the tyranny of the Dutch have been repeated by Mr. Pennant.[6] The Dutch phlegm ſeems to have led them to greater cruelties than the fanaticiſm of the Portugueſe or Spaniards; and our ingenious naturaliſt has obſerved, that "phlegmatic conſtitutions never feel for the ſufferings of others, their calloſity is incorrigible; warm tempers may do wrong, but they ſoon return to their native milkineſs." It is to be regretted that the Engliſh had not retained for ſome years the poſſeſſion of the Dutch ſettlements, to convince the Batavians, by example, that conqueſts may be better maintained by lenity, than by ſordid cruelty. The iſle of Balli ſeems only remarkable for furniſhing ſlaves, cotton yarn, and pickled pork.[7] Of Lombok, Sumbava, and Florez, little is known. Timor was diſcovered in 1522 by the companions of Magalhaens, who found in it alone the white ſandal wood.[8] The Portugueſe, after a long ſtruggle, effected a ſettlement; but were expelled by the Dutch in 1613, who regard this iſle as a kind of barrier of the ſpice trade. Timor is near 200 miles in length by 60 in breadth; and the inhabitants are eſteemed the braveſt in the oriental archipelago.

[6] Outlines, iv. 31. See, ib. 28, the maſſacre of 12,000 Chineſe in 1740.

[7] See Foreſt, 170.

[8] Premier Voyage autour du Monde par Pigaſetta. Paris, an 9. p. 213, 214.

II. Borneo.

This iſland is reputed the largeſt in the world; and even after recent diſcoveries ſeems only to yield to Notaſia, or New Holland, which, as it rivals Europe in ſize, may more properly be regarded as a continent. Borneo ſeems clearly to be the Greater Java of Marco Polo, which he ſays is 3000 miles in circuit, as it is about 900 miles in length, by 600 at its greateſt breadth. That father of oriental geography tells us that the Greater Java is 1500 miles to the S. of Ciamba, probably Siampa, on the S. of Cochin China. From the Greater Java were 700 miles to the iſle of Condur, probably Pulo Condor; thence to the S. W. lay the *province* of Boiach, or Loiach, which ſeems to be Malacca. From that province he paſſes ſouth to the iſle Petan, probably Bentam, or ſome other ſmall woody iſle in that direction: from Petan there were 100 miles to the Leſſer Java, or Sumatra, 2000 miles in circuit, which Polo viſited, and deſcribes ſix of its kingdoms. From the Leſſer Java, were 150 miles to the iſland of Necura, probably the moſt ſoutherly of the Nicobar iſlands; but his nutmegs and cloves here found ſeem fabulous. From Necura he paſſes to Angania, in all appearance the Andamans, and thence S. W. to the great iſland of Seilam, or Ceylon. From this account it ſeems clear that the iſle now called Java was unknown to Marco Polo, and the name which probably implies only a large iſland, as Pulo a ſmall one, was indifferently applied by the Malays to many countries; and happened to be retained by the Portugueſe for a third Java, or large land, unknown to the great European traveller, whoſe writings deſerve illuſtration, as not only intereſting in themſelves, but as they led to the diſcovery of America, and other grand events of modern hiſtory.* Borneo.

* The numerals are very corrupt, but in the account of the globe of Behaim, at the end of Pigafetta's voyage the iſle of Petan is called Pentan, which ſeems to reſemble Bentam. Pigafetta, p. 216, miſtakes modern Java, which the natives, as he ſays, called Jaoa, for the Greater Java of Marco Polo; juſt as he finds Japan S. of the Philippines and the Taprobana of the ancients in Sumatra. He adds that the Leſſer Java is the iſle of Balli! This groſs ignorance of the Portugueſe mariners at firſt led to great confuſion, which is not even now completely expelled.

Borneo. The interior parts of the great iſland of Borneo are little known, though a conſiderable river flow from the centre of the country almoſt due ſouth, forming the harbour of Bender Maſſin; and the names of ſeveral villages on the banks are laid down by D'Anville. "The far greater part of Borneo next to the ſea, eſpecially the northern, conſiſts of ſwamps, covered with foreſts of trees of numberleſs ſpecies and great ſizes, which penetrate for ſcores of miles towards the centre of the iſland. Theſe unſtable muddy flats are divided by rivers, which branch into multitudes of canals, and are the only roads into the interior parts. Lofty mountains are ſaid to riſe in the middle of the iſland; many are volcanic, and often occaſion tremendous earthquakes."[8] The houſes are often built on poſts fixed in rafts, which are moored to the ſhore, and on the Banjar river experience the riſe and fall of the tide, a difference of twelve feet. Theſe ſingular villages are moved from place to place according to the convenience of the inhabitants. The coaſts are held by Malays, Moors, Macaſſars from Celebez, and even Japaneſe. The natives in the interior are blacks, with long hair, of a middle ſtature, feeble and inactive; but their features are ſuperior to thoſe of negroes. Their religion, a kind of Mahometaniſm, and there are ſeveral kingdoms, the chief being at Tatas in the S. on the great river, which for many miles is twice as broad as the Thames at Graveſend, and bordered by trees of moſt ſtupendous height. This river is greatly frequented by the Chineſe junks; but European ſettlements have been unſucceſsful, the adventurers having been maſſacred. The beſt accounts of Borneo ſeem ſtill to be derived from the voyage of Beeckman, publiſhed in 1718. Pepper abounds in the interior country, with the gum called dragon's blood, camphor, and ſandal wood. A ſuperſtitious value is attached to the bezoar, a kind of concretion found in the monkies. Edible birds' neſts are abundant. Gold is found in the interior country; where there are alſo ſaid to be diamonds, but inferior to thoſe of Golconda. The Ourang Outang abounds, and is ſaid to light a fire by blowing with its mouth, to broil fiſh and boil rice, ſo that man is not the only cooking animal. The natives are called Biajos,

[8] Pennant's Outlines, iv. 52.

but

but their language has not been explained: they are ſaid to offer ſacrifices of ſweet ſcented wood to one ſupreme beneficent deity; and the ſentiments of piety, or in other words, of delightful gratitude, are accompanied by laudable morals. The Biajos come down the great river of Banjar to the port of Maſſeen* in rude boats, with gold duſt, and other articles, among which diamonds are mentioned, the Moors called Banjareens being the factors. Theſe Biajos are tatooed blue, with a ſmall wrapper about the loins. The chiefs extract one or two of the fore teeth, ſubſtituting others of gold; and ſtrings of the teeth of tigers, a real badge of knighthood, or courage, are worn round the neck. Theſe animals abound in the iſland, and probably alligators; a deplorable conſequence of the metempſychoſis preſerving their numbers in the eaſt, where in many regions theſe creatures are venerated, as being animated with the ſouls of heroes. The town called Borneo on the N. W. conſiſts of about three thouſand houſes, floating as above deſcribed: it was greatly frequented by the Chineſe, who probably continue to be the chief traders to Borneo. Borneo.

This large iſland, as already mentioned, ought not to be arranged with the group, or chain of Sunda, with which it has no connection; and with equal juſtice might Crete be arranged with the Cyclades, or Rhodes with the Sporades: but it is ſurrounded with many ſmall iſles which, from their relation to this comparative continent, may be termed BORNEAN ISLANDS. Such is the group of SOOLOO in the N. E. of which Mr. Dalrymple, who viſited them, has given a good account. They are rich in pearls, for which they were noted in the time of Magalhaens, Pigafetta, his companion, reporting that a Bornean monarch poſſeſſed two pearls found here, as large as pullet's eggs.[9] The chief iſle is thirty miles by twelve: the natives rather poliſhed, the government being veſted in a ſultan, for the Mahometan religion extends thus far.[10] The iſle of TAWEE lies between the Sooloos and Borneo. At the northern extremity is BANGUEY, not far from Balabac, the moſt S. W. of the Philippines; and BALAMBANGAN, Bornean Iſles. Soolee.

* D'Anville calls the river Biajos, and the town Bender Maſſin, from a confuſion of names and circumſtances.

[9] Ut ſupra, p. 150.

[10] See alſo the Voyages of Sonnerat and Foreſt.

Bornean Isles.

remarkable for a ſettlement attempted by the Engliſh in 1773, but evacuated either on account of the unhealthy climate, or of a Dutch invaſion.* To the W. of Borneo are the groups of Natuna and Anamba little viſited or known; an obſervation applicable alſo to ſeveral iſles in the S. of Borneo; but Pulo Laut, which by D'Anville is repreſented as an iſle, is by later diſcoveries attached to the continent of Borneo.

III. The Manillas, or Philippine Islands.

This large group was diſcovered by Magalhaens in 1521, who called them the archipelago of St. Lazarus; but they were afterwards ſtyled the Philippines, in honour of that infamous tyrant Philip II of Spain. The popular name of Manillas ſeems preferable, as native and ancient, but the appellation ſeems unknown to Pigafetta, who calls the iſle of Luzon, *Lozon*, and does not indicate any other title,† while others term it the iſle of Manilla.

Luzon.

Luzon is the largeſt and moſt important of theſe iſles, being more than ſeven degrees, or near 500 B. miles in length, by about 100 of medial breadth. The jealouſy of the Spaniards has prevented the acquiſition of preciſe knowledge concerning this important iſland, which is pervaded in its length by a chain of high mountains towards the eaſt. Gold, copper, and iron are among the certain products; and the ſoil is reported to be uncommonly fruitful. The natives, who are of a mild character, are called Tagals, like all thoſe of the Philippines, and ſeem of Malay origin.‖ They are tall and well made, wearing only a kind of ſhirts with looſe drawers, but the dreſs of the women is chiefly a large mantle, and their black and beautiful hair ſometimes reaches the ground, the complexion being a deep tawney. The houſes are of

* This affair is explained by Foreſt, p. 336, but rather in a timid manner. We were expelled by an inſurrection of the Sooloos, but were they not inſtigated by the Dutch?

† The Spaniſh ç with *cedilla* is often miſtaken for the common *c*, whence D'Anville's Cumbava for Zumbava, and the *Lucon* of Pennant inſtead of *Luzon*. In like manner the Spaniſh *x*, pronounced *ſh*, has occaſioned our *Xullas* in theſe ſeas, inſtead of *Shullas*.

‖ Sonnerat, ii. 108.

bamboo

bamboo covered with palm leaves, raiſed on pillars to the height of eight or ten feet. The chief food is rice, often eaten with ſalted fiſh. There are many lakes in the iſle of Luzon, the moſt conſiderable being that which gives ſource to the river of Manilla. Several volcanoes occur, and earthquakes are not uncommon. The cotton is of peculiar beauty; and the ſugar cane and cocoa tree are objects of particular culture. The city of Manilla is well-built and fortified, but a third part is occupied by convents: the number of Chriſtian inhabitants is computed at 12,000. Between this city and Acapulco, nearly in the ſame parallel on the W. of Mexico, was conducted a celebrated commerce through a ſpace of about 140 degrees, or about 8400 g. miles, more than one third of the circumference of the globe. The Manilla ſhips, or galleons were formerly of great ſize, as appears from the well-known narrative of Anſon's voyage, but latterly ſmaller veſſels have been uſed. The city of Manilla was taken by the Engliſh in 1762; and the ranſom remained unpaid. The Chineſe were here numerous till the beginning of the 17th century, when the Spaniards committed a terrible maſſacree of that induſtrious people. In 1769 it is ſaid that they were again expelled from all theſe iſles, by the bigotry of the Governor: ſince which time there has been a great decline in induſtry and produce. Luzon.

Next in ſize is MINDANAO, a beautiful and fertile iſland, the chief Spaniſh ſettlement being at Sambuang in the S. W.[12] This iſland is in general mountainous; but the vales conſiſt of a rich black mould, watered with the pureſt rivulets. The beauty of the ſcenery is unſpeakable, and ſome idea of it may be formed from the prints in Mr. Foreſt's voyage. The Lano is a large inland lake, about 60 miles in circumference. Horſes and buffaloes have here multiplied to a ſurpriſing degree. In the ſouth there is a volcano of conſtant eruption, which ſerves as a ſea mark. Mindanao.

The other chief Philippines are PALAWAN, MINDORO, PANI, BUGLAS, or iſle of Negroes, ZEBU, LEYT, or Leita, and SAMAR. On the E. of Zebu is the ſmall iſle of MACTAN, where the celebrated

[12] Sonnerat, ii. 116. For an ample and curious account of this iſland the reader may conſult Foreſt's Voyage to New Guinea. The Harafforas, or black natives, are ſold with the land.

Mindanao. navigator Magalhaens was ſlain. The other little iſlands might be counted by hundreds. In general this grand and extenſive group preſents many volcanic appearances; and moſt of the iſles abound with lava, and volcanic glaſs, ſulphur, and hot ſprings. Such at leaſt are the repreſentations of the French writers, who ſeem fond of volcanoes, natural and moral. Theſe iſles preſent wild boars, deer, and uſeful animals of various kinds; and among vegetables the bread fruit muſt not be forgotten, which firſt appears on the eaſtern coaſts of Sumatra, and thence extends its benefits through innumerable iſlands in the Indian and Pacific oceans.

IV. The Celebezian Isles.

Theſe iſlands are by D'Anville claſſed with the Great Moluccas; but an inſpection of his map, or of Arrowſmith's chart of the Pacific, will ſatisfy the reader that this is a violent arrangement, as not only a wide expanſe of ſea intervenes between Celebez and the Moluccas, but an extreme iſland, of vaſt extent, is thus attached to a comparatively ſmall and diſtant group. If Celebez muſt be claſſed with any other iſland it ought to be with Borneo, from which it is only ſeparated by the ſtrait of Macaſſar, being as it were the Ireland of the Bornean Britain. But as theſe two iſlands have never been ſubject, like thoſe of Japan, to one government there is no common appellation extended to both. It ſeems therefore preferable to conſider Celebez, and the ſmall adjacent iſles, as a diſtinct portion of this vaſt archipelago.

Celebez. Celebez is an iſle of great and irregular length, more than 600 B. miles, but divided into various portions by immenſe bays, ſo that the breadth is commonly not above 60 B. miles; but if taken at the centre, where the various limbs unite, may be 140 B. miles to Tolo bay in the eaſt. This iſland is lofty and mountainous, eſpecially towards the centre, and there are ſeveral active volcanoes. Though the Aſiatic iſles abound in ſublime and beautiful ſcenery, this is depicted as exceeding them all."[13] Rivers abound, riſing in the high mountains, and precipita-

[13] Pennant, iv. 86.

ting down vaſt rocks, amidſt a ſylvan ſcene of lofty and ſingular trees. Though this iſle ſeem to have been known to Magalhaens and Pigafetta, under the name of *Celebi*, as Borneo was under that of *Burni*, yet it is ſaid to have been firſt explored in 1525, not as belonging to the Moluccas, as Mr. Pennant conceives, for Pigafetta reſtricts this name to the five ſmall iſles on the W. of Gilolo. The Portugueſe obtained a ſettlement near Macaſſar in the S. W., being favoured by the king of that region; but were expelled by the Dutch in 1660, who continue to controul the iſland, the Chineſe alone being permitted to trade. The natives, commonly called Macaſſars,* often degrade their courage in the quality of free-booters, attacking veſſels with ſurprizing deſperation, and often with lances, or arrows poiſoned with the juice of the notorious tree, or ſhrub called Upas. Their houſes are raiſed on pillars, as uſual, on account of the rainy ſeaſon, or W. monſoon, from November till March.[14] They were formerly regarded as cannibals; and the kings of the Moluccas were accuſtomed to ſend criminals to Celebez to be devoured. In 1768 the Dutch of the city of Macaſſar refuſed to admit Captain Carteret; though employed on a voyage of diſcovery, and his ſhip and crew were in the utmoſt diſtreſs.[15] The Celebezian group might aptly be termed the Iſles of Poiſon, being full of poiſonous trees and plants; though the noted Upas be exaggerated and aſcribed to Java, where it ſeems leſs known.† Nature has thus contraſted the ſalutary productions of the Spice Iſlands, with the moſt pernicious proofs of her power. This large iſland having been, like Borneo, little explored, there is a great deficiency in its natural hiſtory. The inhabitants are ſaid to cultivate great quantities of rice. CELEBEZ.

Around Celebez are many ſmall iſles, as SANGUY in the N. the SHULLAS, and PELING in the E., with BOUTAN and SALA in the S., and ſome of ſmaller note in the W. Even the ſmalleſt iſles are moſtly inhabited and governed by chiefs. In Sanguy, and ſome others there Other Iſles.

* The moſt powerful people are the *Bonians*, on the bay of Boni, called *Buggaſſes* by Engliſh ſeamen, and by other nations *Bougineſe*. Stavorinus, ii. 181.

[14] Mandelſlo, i. 403. [15] See his own account in Hawkeſworth's Voyages.

† The fabulous Foerſch plants his enormous Upas twenty-ſeven leagues from Soura Sharta. D'Anville does not indicate this Soura in his map of Java. His account is confuted in the Chineſe Embaſſy, vol. i. p. 309. The real Upas is the climate of Batavia.

are

Other Isles. are ſmall Dutch garriſons, as advanced guards to protect the Spice Iſlands. Boutan is probably ſtill ruled by a Mahometan Sultan.

V. The Spice Islands, including the Moluccas.

The Moluccas, originally and ſtrictly ſo termed, are only five ſmall iſlands on the W. of Gilolo, namely Ternat, Tidore, Motir, Makian, and Bakian, or Batchian:[16] but as the kings of the Moluccas have poſſeſſed territory in Gilolo, and other adjacent iſles, and as the term *Moluccas* is conſidered as ſynonymous with that of *Spice Iſlands*, the appellation has been extended. The French geographers diſtinguiſh them into *Grandes et Petites Moluques;* and the Moluccas of D'Anville, as tinged in his map of Aſia, include all the iſlands in the oriental archipelago, except thoſe of Sunda, and the Philippines; but this extenſion is objectionable, as leading to vague ideas and confuſed deſcription, and it ſeems preferable, as above-mentioned, to include under the name of Spice Iſlands, thoſe from Mortay in the N. to Banda in the S., and from Myſol in the E. to Bouro and Oubi in the W. Thus the chief Spice Iſlands will be Gilolo, Ceram, and Bouro, with Mortay, Oubi, Mysol, Bouro,* that of Amboyna, and the group of Banda, with ſuch ſmall iſles as approximate nearer to theſe, than to the Celebezian group, or Sumatran chain. In this deſcription are ſpecially included the five celebrated iſles, originally and peculiarly termed the Moluccas.

Gilolo. Gilolo is of conſiderable extent; but in the irregularity of form ſimilar to Celebez. The length is about 230 B. miles; the breadth of each limb ſeldom above 40. The ſhores are low: the interior riſes to high peaks, perhaps of granite, and it ſeems doubtful whether banks of coral can, as conceived, ever conſtitute a laſting iſle, though they may form low and periſhable ones, or enlarge thoſe already fixed on the uſual baſis. Gilolo is ſaid to have been once governed by one ſovereign, a ſheref from Mecca; but the Sultans of Ternat and Tidore

[16] Pigafetta, 167.

* In the interior foreſts of all theſe iſlands the ſpice trees abound. See Stavorinus, ii. 411.

ſeem

ſeem now to ſhare this large iſle betwixt them, the former poſſeſſing the northern part with Mortay, Bakian, Motir, and ſome Celebezian iſles, and part of Papua; while the Sultan of Tidore holds the ſouthern part, with Myſol, and ſome other iſles.'[17] This circumſtance adds to the propriety of including Gilolo in the ſame deſcription with the Moluccas. One of the chief towns is Tatanay, ſituated on a point or ſmall promontory of the eaſtern limb, faced with precipices, ſo as to be only acceſſible by ladders. This iſle abounds with oxen, buffaloes, goats, deer, and wild hogs; but the ſheep are few. The bread fruit is frequent in Gilolo, with the ſago tree: and there are probably cloves and nutmegs, in ſpite of the Dutch eradication, which is defeated by the very birds of the air, while nature loudly exclaims againſt the infamous attempts of avarice to reſtrict her bounties.'[18] The natives are induſtrious, particularly in weaving, but their exertions are ſuppreſſed by Batavian jealouſy. Gilolo.

Ceram. CERAM is another iſland of conſiderable ſize, being about 190 B. miles in length, by 40 in breadth; low towards the ſhore, but with inland mountains. Mr. Forreſt ſpecially mentions that Ceram produces clove trees; and there are large foreſts of the ſago tree, which forms a conſiderable article of export: yet this large iſland has been little explored, and is almoſt unknown.

Bouro. As in geographical deſcription the ſize of an iſland is a leading feature, the next mentioned muſt be BOURO, about 90 miles in length, by 50 in breadth. This iſle was nominally ſubject to the king of Ternat; but in 1660 the Dutch built a fort, and, though they burned the exterior woods, ſeem to have improved the induſtry of the inhabitants.'[19] The civet weaſel is found here, and the curious hog called babirouſſa. The iſle of Bouro riſes ſuddenly from a deep ſea, being encompaſſed as with a wall. The interior mountains are ſo lofty that they may ſometimes be deſcried at the diſtance of twenty-eight leagues. A green ebony, and a kind of iron wood, are mentioned among the trees;

[17] Pennant, iv. 193.

[18] Mandelſlo, i. 404, claſſes cloves among the products of Gilolo.

[19] Pennant, iv. 174.

Bouro. and it is probable that the clove, and perhaps the nutmeg, defy, in the mountain receſſes, the wild avarice of man.

Of the other large iſlands Bakian, or Batchian, will be deſcribed with the Moluccas ſtrictly ſo called. Of Mortay, Mysol, (Mixoal, or Michoal,) and Oubi little is known. Mortay is a beautiful iſle but thinly inhabited, though full of ſago trees, which are cut by the people of Gilolo; and is ſubject to the king of Ternat; it being a ſingularity in the oriental archipelago that ſmall iſles have been ſometimes ſelected for the ſeats of monarchy, being generally more civilized by the concentration of ſociety, than the large, over which rude tribes are thinly diſperſed. Mysol, the moſt eaſtern of this group, is of a triangular ſhape, with a bold ſhore. The villages are built in the water upon poſts; and there are pictureſque foreſts viſited by the birds of paradiſe, which ſeem to migrate from Papua, and are caught in conſiderable numbers. Theſe romantic and beautiful birds ſtrictly belong to Papua, or New Guinea, but their flight extends over moſt of the Spice Iſlands, where they always deſcend as from heaven, and, as the natives believe, float in aromatic air. Oubi abounds in cloves, and the Dutch have a ſmall fort on the weſt ſide; but the inhabitants are chiefly fugitive ſlaves from Ternat.

Moluccas Proper. But the moſt celebrated and important iſlands of this group ſtill remain to be deſcribed. The Moluccas, ſtrictly ſo called, in the weſtern extremity; and Amboyna and Banda in the ſouth. The little, or proper Moluccas, as already mentioned, are Ternat, Tidore, Motir, Makian, and Batchian. It would appear from Pigafetta's account of the expedition of Magalhaens, that the Mahometan ſettlements in theſe iſlands only took place about half a century before his time. In 1510 they were viſited by Portugueſe navigators from the weſt: and the fame of the diſcovery was one of the chief inducements to the firſt circumnavigation of the Spaniards, conducted by Magalhaens a Portugueſe commodore. Theſe two great maritime nations afterwards conteſted this precious property: but the Moluccas were finally reſigned to the Portugueſe, who were ſupplanted by the Dutch about the year 1607. The Engliſh alſo claiming this opulent commerce

a treaty

a treaty was ſigned in 1619, declaring the Moluccas, Amboyna, and Banda common to both; the Engliſh to have one third of the produce, and the Dutch two; each contributing a ſimilar proportion to defend the iſlands from invaders.[20] But in the ſhort courſe of three years "the Dutch, actuated by their inſatiable avarice, determined, by the moſt diabolical means, to free themſelves from all competitors. They forged a plot of the Engliſh againſt their lives and liberties; but ſuch a plot that none but ideots could have been ſuppoſed to have projected. The charge was, that ten factors, and eleven foreign ſoldiers were to ſeize on the caſtle garriſoned by two hundred men. A fooliſh queſtion aſked by an Indian ſoldier, as to the ſtrength of the place, was the foundation of the tragedy. He was ſeized and put to the moſt exquiſite tortures that hell itſelf could invent; and in his agonies anſwered the artful interrogatories in the manner the Fiſcal could wiſh. Our countrymen and the eleven foreign ſoldiers underwent the ſame horrid torments, which were continued at intervals during eight days. The means are too dreadful for the humane pen to recite, or the humane ear to bear. The conſtancy of the poor ſufferers was often overcome; they made ſuch anſwers as they thought would ſooneſt free them from the rack, and which they recanted as ſoon as the torture ceaſed. They were then recalled to their torments. At length the record of examination was read, and the greater part were relieved by a ſpeedy execution: thoſe who were reprieved could drag but a miſerable life with mangled bodies or diſlocated limbs. The ſufferers, before death, were confronted with each other, Engliſh with Indians: both bewailed their infirmity for accuſing the other under the preſſure of torture, and mutually exchanged forgiveneſs. A full account is given of this horrid tranſaction by the ingenious Campbel, in his collection of travels: we could well excuſe his ſpeaking to our eyes by a moſt horrible print. The foreign ſoldiers, from good authority, he ſuppoſes to have been Koreans, an adventurous naval people even in that early time."[21]

Moluccas Proper.

The clove is ſaid to have abounded particularly in Makian, but the growth was afterwards confined by the Dutch to Amboyna. The nutmeg ſpecially flouriſhed in the group of Banda: and the Romans ap-

[20] Rymer's Fœdera, xvii. 170. [21] Pennant's Outlines, iv. 168.

Moluccas Proper.

pear to have known the clove, but not the nutmeg, which ſeems to have been brought to Europe by the Mahometans. The largeſt of the little Moluccas is BATCHIAN, called by D'Anville Baiſian, being governed by a Sultan, who is likewiſe ſovereign of Oubi and Ceram, with Goram, a little iſle S. E. of Ceram, reputed the moſt eaſtern boundary of the Mahometan faith.* This monarch has a penſion from the Dutch, either for the deſtruction, or ſupply of nutmegs, but is otherwiſe little ſubſervient. Batchian riſes into woody hills; and on the ſhores, as in moſt iſles of this archipelago, there are prodigious rocks of coral, of infinite variety and beauty. MAKIAN is a ſmall iſle at a greater interval, to the N. of Batchian, than appears between the other Moluccas, and riſes like a high conic mountain from the ſea. This was regarded as the chief Dutch ſettlement before Amboyna became the metropolis of the Moluccas.[12] Next is MOTIR, formerly, as an old Engliſh writer ſays, the ſeat of Venus and voluptuouſneſs. The moſt diſtinguiſhed of the proper Moluccas are TIDORE and TERNAT. While Portugal was united to Spain the Dutch were defeated near Tidore in 1610, by the Spaniſh Admiral Sylva; but by the aſſiſtance of the king of Ternat the Batavians ſeized the fort. In Tidore there are twenty-five moſks; and the Sultan, as already mentioned, poſſeſſes alſo the ſouth of Gilolo, and claims tribute from Myſol.

Batchian.

Makian.

Ternat.

TERNAT is the moſt northern and moſt important of the Moluccas, though it ſcarcely exceed twenty-four miles in circumference. The Sultan controuls Makian, and Motir, with the north of Gilolo, Mortay, and even ſome Celebezian iſles, and part of Papua, whence he received a tribute of gold, amber, and birds of Paradiſe. Mr. Forreſt has publiſhed a liſt of the militia, furniſhed by the reſpective territories of the Sultan of Ternat, amounting to ninety thouſand ſeven hundred; nor was the naval force inconſiderable, and the Ternatians and Tidoreans have not ſhunned maritime conflicts even with Europeans. In 1638 the Batavians formed an alliance with the king of Ternat, and the leſſer princes, which has been repeatedly renewed; but garriſons are eſta-

* The little iſle of Goram has thirteen moſks. For. 38.

[12] See in Mandelſlo a View of Amboyna, in which it is called *Capitale des Iſles Moluques.*

bliſhed

bliſhed to enforce the obſervance, and the ſultans of Ternat and Tidore are watched with great attention. The largeſt of the *proas*, or ſmall ſhips, may be about the burden of ten tons: on each ſide are ſingular frames, like wings, on which the rowers are placed, yet theſe veſſels move with great ſwiftneſs through a ſmooth ſea. Ternat conſiſts chiefly of high land, abounding with ſtreams, which burſt from the cloudy peaks; and there is a volcano which diſplayed great force in 1693. The chief quadrupeds are goats, deer, and hogs, and the birds are of diſtinguiſhed beauty, particularly the king-fiſher, cloathed in ſcarlet and mazareen blue, called by the natives the Goddeſs. In Ternat the Boa-ſerpent is ſometimes found, of the length of thirty feet; and by its power of ſuction and conſtriction is reported ſometimes to ſwallow even ſmall deer. TERNAT.

Equally diſtinguiſhed are the moſt ſouthern Spice Iſlands of AMBOYNA, and BANDA, cloves being now reſtricted, ſo far as Dutch avarice could effect, to Amboyna, and nutmegs to Banda. The Governor of Amboyna makes an annual progreſs throughout the Spice Iſlands, to ſee that treaties are obſerved, and ſuppreſs any new object of jealouſy. Amboyna was diſcovered by the Portugueſe about 1515, but was not ſeized till 1564; and was conquered by the Dutch about 1607. This celebrated iſle is about 60 B. miles in length, N. to S., and on the weſt ſide there is a large bay, which divides it into two limbs, or peninſulas. On the eaſtern ſide is another bay, with a bad harbour, where the Portugueſe erected their chief fortreſs Victoria. The town of Amboyna, the capital of the iſle, ſtands near the S. W. extremity, and is neatly built; the houſes, on account of the frequent earthquakes, ſeldom exceed one floor; but the State Houſe is an edifice of two ſtories. The face of this iſland is beautiful, woody mountains, and verdant vales, being interſperſed with hamlets, and enriched by cultivation.[33] The clove tree grows to the height of about forty or fifty feet, with ſpreading branches and long pointed leaves. In deep ſheltered vales ſome trees will produce thirty pounds weight annually, the chief crop being from November to February. The ſoil is moſtly a reddiſh clay, Amboyna.

[33] An account of the Spice Iſlands, ſince they have been in the poſſeſſion of Great Britain. Aſiatic Regiſter, 1800, p. 200. There was a moſt violent earthquake in 1755.

but

Amboyna. but in the vales blackiſh and ſandy. When Amboyna was recently ſeized by the Engliſh,* it was found, with its dependencies, to contain 45,252 ſouls, of which 17,813 were Proteſtants, the reſt Mahometans, except a few Chineſe and ſavages. The Dutch are tolerably poliſhed, this being the next ſettlement to Batavia in wealth and conſequence. The natives cannot be praiſed, but differ little from other Malays; and when intoxicated with opium will commit any crime. The dreſs is a looſe ſhirt, or frock, of cotton cloth; and the chiefs are called Rajas. Cattle, grain, &c. are imported from Java. The Dutch diſcouraged the growth of indigo, leſt the natives ſhould become rich and rebellious; but the ſugar and coffee are excellent, and among many delicious fruits is the manguſteen of Hindoſtan. About eleven years ago nutmegs were permitted to be cultivated in Amboyna, Banda not furniſhing a ſufficient ſupply.† The chief animals are deer and wild hogs, and among the birds is the caſſowary. The moſt curious woods are brought from Ceram. The abominable deſpotiſm of the Dutch government and laws is expoſed in the above account, as only tending to impoveriſh and emaſculate the country. An ample deſcription of the plants of Amboyna has been publiſhed by the induſtrious Rumphius.

Banda. Banda is the chief iſle of a group which compriſes ſix or ſeven others, *Roſſigen*, *Nera*, *Gonong* or *Ganapez*, (in which there is a remarkable volcano,) *Way*, and *Rohn*. Banda, or Lantor, does not exceed eight B. miles in length, W. to E., and the greateſt breadth at its caſtern extremity may be five. The nutmeg tree is chiefly cultivated in Nera, Gonong, Ay, or Way, and Lantor, or Lontor, which laſt is a particular name for the largeſt iſle, as all the others are indifferently ſtyled Bandas; and flouriſhes, not only in the rich black mould, but even amidſt the lavas of Gonong, which is the higheſt iſle, the ſummit being 1940 feet above the ſea. When the Engliſh ſeized theſe iſles in 1796, the annual produce was about 163,000 pounds of nutmegs

* The iſlands of Amboyna and Banda were taken without reſiſtance in February and March, 1796, by the Engliſh Admiral Rainier.

The oblong nutmeg is not eſteemed, being of a leſs ſpicey nature than thoſe cultivated at Banda. Stavorinus, i. 342. Cloves have been introduced in the Weſt Indies, and in 1798 about 3000lb. were exported.

† See the above account, where the author has confounded the clove with the nutmeg.

and 46,000 pounds of mace.* The nutmeg tree grows to the ſize of a pear tree, the leaves reſembling thoſe of the laurel, and bears fruit from the age of ten to one hundred years. "The nutmeg, when ripe on the tree, has both a very curious and beautiful appearance: it is about the ſize of an apricot, and nearly of a ſimilar colour, with the ſame kind of hollow mark all round it; in ſhape it is ſomewhat like a pear: when perfectly ripe, the rind over the mark opens, and diſcovers the mace, of a deep red, growing over, and covering in part, the thin ſhell of the nutmeg, which is black."[24] BANDA.

The ground being chiefly occupied with theſe precious plantations, cattle and grain, &c. are imported from Batavia; and the Chineſe merchants carry European articles even to Papua or New Guinea. The inhabitants of the Banda iſles were found to be 5763. The Dutch ſtill pay a courteous tribute to the ſultan of Ternat, once ſovereign of Amboyna and Banda; but from the Moluccas, ſtrictly ſo ſtyled, little is obtained, except gold duſt. The Engliſh were expelled from Lantor, and Rohn, or Púlo Rohn, prior to the maſſacre of Amboyna; but ſeized the whole Spice Iſlands in 1796, and reſtored them to their Batavian maſters by the treaty with France 1801.

* The hurricane and earthquake, 1778, almoſt annihilated the nutmeg trees in Banda, ſo that the Dutch have become the dupes of their own avarice. From 1796 to 1798 the Engliſh Eaſt India Company imported 817,312 lb. cloves, 93,732 lb. nutmegs, 46,730 lb. mace, beſides private trade, amounting to about a third part of the above. Stavorinus, ii. 418.

[24] Aſiatic Regiſter, 1800, p. 216.

AUSTRALASIA.

IN the introduction to the deſcription of the Aſiatic Iſlands, the reaſons for this new diviſion of the earth have been already illuſtrated. It has alſo been obſerved that this appellation cannot be juſtly extended to the numerous iſles in the Pacific Ocean, which may either be admitted as a ſixth diviſion of the globe, or conſidered as a diſtinct appendage to Auſtralaſia. But ſuch is the prodigious extent of the Pacific, that it ſeems more proper to regard theſe innumerable iſlands as a ſeparate grand diviſion, the more eſpecially as to connect them with Auſtralaſia would infer that they all lay at leaſt to the ſouth of the equator, while nearly one half is ſituated to the north of that line. Yet a reſpect for ancient uſage may occaſion ſome delay in the general admiſſion of theſe new diviſions of the earth, and even in this work they are not formally admitted, nor intituled, as ſuch; but are arranged as diviſions of the Aſiatic quarter, with which they have a greater connection than with any other of the admitted portions, not only from their relative poſition, but becauſe the language and manners indicate, even in the remote iſles of Polyneſia, a connection with the Malays in ſouthern Aſia; the paſſage from the Aſiatic iſles being, as it were, ſtep by ſtep; while towards America there is a wide expanſe, ſeemingly deſtitute of iſlands, or of conſequent communication.*

It

* Some recent German geographers have conſidered Auſtralaſia and Polyneſia as *ſynonymous terms*, in contradiction, as already explained, to the firſt inventor of theſe appellations. It is true that this fifth part of the world, as the Germans call it, would not even then exceed the wide extent of Aſia or America; but it ſeems preferable, upon ſeveral accounts, to conſider Auſtralaſia and Polyneſia as two great and diſtinct MARITIME diviſions of the globe. The firſt denomination cannot juſtly be applied to iſlands which extend thirty degrees to the *north* of the equator, being

It will occur to the learned reader that the diviſion even of the other quarters of the world is, in many inſtances, modern and arbitrary. General Strahlenberg firſt ſuggeſted that the Uralian mountains formed a natural barrier between Aſia and Europe, an idea which has been univerſally followed. Many of the ancients conſider Egypt as a part of Aſia; but the moderns have fixed a more preciſe and accurate boundary. It is perhaps to be wiſhed that North and South America had received diſtinct continental appellations, a defect which cannot now be remedied. But where no general name has yet been impoſed, and the novelty would contribute greatly to clearneſs and preciſion, there ſeems no rational objection to its acceptation. The boundaries between Europe and Aſia, and between Aſia and Africa, may be called arbitrary lines; and even that between Aſia and America is only a ſtrait of thirteen leagues. Such being the caſe there can be no objection from uſage to the diviſions aſſumed between Auſtralaſia and the iſlands in the oriental archipelago; or, in like manner, for the weſtern boundaries of Polyneſia.*

Theſe conſiderations being premiſed, it will be proper briefly to review the boundaries of Auſtralaſia; for in a work of ſcience, and ſtill more in one of general inſtruction, it is more proper to incur the charge of repetition than that of obſcurity, eſpecially where the ſubject is new and has never been properly illuſtrated. The weſtern boundary, as already mentioned, may be taken in the meridian from the ſouth of Su-

being on the contrary ſtrictly connected with a poſition at leaſt to the ſouth of the line. Polyneſia would be therefore far more proper as a general term, but cannot with equal juſtice be applied to New Holland, ſuppoſed to be a *continent*, and to the circumjacent iſlands, the characteriſtic feature of which is not their *number*, but their ſize; while in Polyneſia, as here accepted, the characteriſtic feature conſiſts in innumerable ſmall iſlands. The name of Auſtralaſia becomes alſo the more proper, becauſe it not only implies a continent but the reminiſcence that this region ſupplies the place of the ideal Terra Auſtralis, after which geographers and navigators ſo long enquired in vain. The admiſſion of both theſe diviſions ſeems alſo the more deſireable, as ſome geographers have regretted that North and South America had not received diſtinct appellations; for too great extent in any diviſion only leads to laxity and confuſion of ideas, and either a vague brevity, or a needleſs diffuſion of expreſſion. Mr. Dalrymple, an excellent judge, approves of theſe two diviſions aſſigned by De Broſſes. (Pref. to Collect. of Voyages.)

* If rejected as diviſions of the globe, they muſt of courſe be arranged among the Aſiatic Iſlands, in which caſe the appellations may be ſtill retained.

matra, or extended to 100°, or even 90°, eaſt from Greenwich; but as few or no iſles of conſequence have yet been diſcovered in that direction, the ſtrict demarcation may be diſcovered by future circumſtances.

A like obſervation may be applied to the ſouthern boundary of Auſtralaſia, which, as including New Zealand, and ſome iſles not far diſtant, muſt be extended to the ſouthern latitude of 50°, or even of 60°, where the iſlands of ice begin to appear.

The moſt difficult boundaries are thoſe on the north and eaſt. A wide and vacant channel ſeems to divide the north-weſt part of Notaſia, or New Holland, from the iſles of Sunda, or Sumatran chain. From the north cape of Van Diemen, long. 131° E. from Greenwich, a line aſcends to the north between the Indian and Pacific oceans, leaving in the former the iſles of Banda, Ceram, Myſol, and Gilolo; while in the Pacific, and belonging to Auſtralaſia, are Timorlaut, Waijoo, and other iſles immediately connected with Papua. This line being extended in the ſame direction about two degrees to the N. of the equator, turns eaſt into a wide channel of ſeparation between the Carolines, &c. and New Ireland, and other iſles belonging to Auſtralaſia. Bending ſouth-eaſt, Sir Joſeph Banks's Iſles and the New Hebudes are left in Auſtralaſia, while a conſiderable interval leaves the Feejee iſlands in Polyneſia. Thence a wide and open ſea gives the line of demarcation an ample ſweep, about ſix or ſeven degrees to the eaſt of New Zealand, when bending S. W. it joins the ſouthern boundary.

From theſe indications it will be perceived that Auſtralaſia contains the following countries.

1. The central and chief land of Notaſia, or New Holland, with any iſles which may be diſcovered in the adjacent Indian ocean, twenty degrees to the W., and between twenty and thirty degrees to the E., including particularly all the large iſlands that follow:
2. Papua, or New Guinea.
3. New Britain and New Ireland, with the Solomon iſles.
4. New Caledonia, and the New Hebudes.
5. New Zealand.

6. The

6. The large iſland called Van Diemen's land, recently diſcovered to be ſeparated from New Holland by a ſtrait, or rather channel, called Baſs's ſtrait.

In the ſubſequent brief deſcription of theſe extenſive countries, the popular names muſt be accepted, however capricious or objectionable they may appear.

I. New Holland.

Some ſuppoſe that this extenſive region, when more thoroughly inveſtigated, will be found to conſiſt of two, three, or more vaſt iſlands, interſected by narrow ſeas, an idea which probably ariſes from the diſcovery that New Zealand conſiſts of two iſlands, and that other new ſtraits have been found to divide lands in this quarter, formerly ſuppoſed to be continuous. But on the other hand Papua or New Guinea has been recently aſcertained to be continuous; what were formerly thought to be disjunctive ſtraits having been found to be mere inlets and bays. However this be, the moſt recent and authentic charts indicate New Holland as a country fully entitled to the appellation of a continent. The length from E. to W. is about 43 degrees of longitude, in the medial latitude of 25°, that is about 2340 g. miles, or 2730 Britiſh. The breadth from N. to S. extends from 11° to 39°, being 28 degrees, 1680 g. miles, or 1960 Britiſh. Europe, the ſmalleſt of the ancient continents, is ſuppoſed to be about 3300 B. miles in its utmoſt length, and its greateſt breadth 2350, ſo that Mr. Pennant rather exaggerates when he aſſimilates the ſize of Europe and Notaſia, the latter being a quarter leſs than the former. But the proximity of ſo many large iſlands recompenſes this defect; and the whole of Auſtralaſia will probably be found greatly to exceed the European continent. It muſt at the ſame time be remembered that New Holland may be diſcovered to conſiſt of two or more immenſe iſlands, ſo that Auſtralaſia is not admitted as a new continent, but merely as a new diviſion of the globe; in which view this and Polyneſia may be termed maritime diviſions, while the four ancient quarters are ſtrictly terrene. Extent.

New Holland.

It is probable that the northern parts of Papua were not unknown to the Chineſe; but Marco Polo does not ſeem to indicate even Java, far leſs any lands to the ſouth or eaſt of that iſland.* As there is no ſhadow of evidence that the Chineſe had diſcovered New Holland, there is room to believe that the firſt civilized people to whom it was diſcloſed were the Spaniards or Portugueſe, the earlieſt European navigators in this portion of the globe. As in the year 1580 Portugal became ſubject to Spain, and was incorporated with that kingdom till 1640, the diſcoveries which happened during theſe ſixty years are indifferently aſcribed to the Spaniards or Portugueſe. An ancient map now lodged in the Britiſh Muſeum has been thought to evince that a conſiderable portion of the coaſt now called New South Wales was known to the Spaniards or Portugueſe, but the preciſe epoch of the map or diſcovery ſeems uncertain.† It would indeed be a tedious and fruitleſs inquiry to

* His mention of Arabia, and of the African iſlands of Zanzibar and Madagaſcar, ſeems derived from the Arabian merchants, whom he met with in the eaſt, and affords no argument for his knowledge in this quarter.

† An excellent geographer, M. la Rochette, informs me that the names are from the Portugueſe, and to this people he imputes the earlieſt diſcoveries in this quarter, their ſettlements in the Moluccas, &c. being to the ſouth of the Spaniſh. But he does not believe that the name ſuppoſed to indicate Botany Bay refers to that poſition.

The author has recently inſpected this remarkable map, which formerly belonged to the Earl of Oxford, or in other words, was in the Harleian library, to which it was reſtored by Sir Joſeph Banks in 1790. It is a large vellum roll, on the plan of a Mercator's chart of the world, but without longitudes or latitudes, and is numbered in the MS. Catalogue at the Britiſh Muſeum 5413. Inſtead of being Spaniſh or Portugueſe, as has been reported, it is entirely French, and the chief names very large and diſtinct, as in S. America *Terre du Breſil*, &c. &c. It is ſo conſtructed that the ſouth point is at the top of the map inſtead of the bottom, as now uſual.

To the ſouth of Aſia is a large iſland, correſponding in poſition with our New Holland. On the ſouth of *Java*, which is here placed ſouth of *Samatra* (Sumatra), is a narrow ſtrait between Java and this large iſland; and Timor appears to the north eaſt. The large iſland is called *Java la Grande;* and ſeveral names are marked on the weſt and eaſt coaſts, among the latter being *Coſte des Herbaiges*, or the Coaſt of Plants (rather herbage or paſture), which has been thought to correſpond with Botany Bay, but it is too far to the north, even ſuppoſing that this large iſland repreſents New Holland. To the ſouth of the *Coſte des Herbaiges* are three other names, at conſiderable diſtances; firſt, *Coſte de Gracal;* then an extenſive and very projecting promontory, called the cape *de Fremoſe*, which is followed at a conſiderable diſtance to the ſouth by *Goufre*, that is a gulf, or rather large bay. The terminating line of the map interſects this large iſland, and leaves its extent uncertain. At a conſiderable diſtance to the N. E appears the *Zipangri*, or Japan of Marco Polo, which is drawn with an arbitrary outline, and without any names of places.

As

to inveſtigate the claims of various navigators to the mere ſite of a new region, or even a brief caſual viſit; and the claim is only admiſſible in moſt important inſtances, ſuch as the landing of Colon or Columbus in America, after he had diſcovered the Weſt Indies. For it would be

As it has been already ſhewn that the Great Java of Marco Polo is in the iſland of Borneo, there is vehement reaſon to ſuſpect that this ſuppoſed New Holland is merely the iſland of Borneo, laid down in a wrong poſition, which to a perſon verſed in ancient maps will not appear wonderful. Perhaps the draughtſman, who by the writing of the names muſt have intended the ſouth to be uppermoſt, had before him a map of the Greater and Leſſer Java, in which the north was uppermoſt, and the error might have happened even if he had already given Borneo its proper ſituation. In the globe by Martin Behaim, 1492, Java Major is in a correſponding poſition, as appears from the print in the *Voyage de Pigaſetta*, Paris, an 9, 8vo. This map indeed ſhews a far ſuperior knowledge in other reſpects, and ſeems to have been conſtructed about 1540: but the appellations of *Jave la Grande* and *Zipangri* ſufficiently indicate that, in this part, the author laboured under imperfect accounts, and erroneous poſitions; and the narrow ſtrait between the large iſland and Java, with the abſence of New Guinea, and other circumſtances, appear to ſhew that this ſuppoſed New Holland is perhaps the offspring of ignorance and error, being merely a repeated and wrong poſition of Borneo, the real Greater Java.

Since this note was written Mr. Planta, chief librarian of the Britiſh Muſeum, mentioned to the author a curious manuſcript there, Bib. Reg. 20. E. ix. being a ſet of charts, or rather maps, intituled a *Hydrographie*, by John Rotz, who calls himſelf ſervant to Henry VIII; and it is dated at the end 1542, in the thirty-fourth year of that king's reign. This moſt curious and important MS. is written on vellum in Engliſh, but the dedication is in French; and Rotz was perhaps a Fleming, who came over with Ann of Cleves 1540. Beſides a calender, and ſome inſtructions for navigation, there are ſeveral maps, executed with great care and elegance, particularly a planiſphere at the end, which well deſerves to be publiſhed. In this, and in the ſecond map, New Holland is laid down as it appeared in modern maps after the ſuppoſed diſcovery by Taſman. Other parts are alſo ſtriking, as the *coſt of Labrador*, with four Portugueſe names; *Newfonde Londe, where men go fiſhing*; and *Cape Bretons*, with ſeveral names betwixt it and Florida. There is alſo *La Bermuda*, with ſome iſles to the N. E. now unknown.

The author collated theſe maps with the large map above mentioned, but inclines to think that Rotz is the original, as he retains many Portugueſe words, which in the other are tranſlated into French. In both the weſt coaſt of Borneo appears in its proper place, with *Porto de Borneo* and *Baxos de Borne*, (in the large map *Port de Borne*, *Baſſes de Borne*;) and in the ſame iſle *mont de St. P.* and *Yſlets de St. Paul.* North of Borneo is *Y. de Polouan* (Palawan); and on the eaſt the Moluccas. In the large map Borneo is an oblong ſquare, much too ſmall in ſize: and the ſtrait between Little and Great Java, reſembling a large river, ſeems to be called *Rio Grande*, while on the weſt is *Yſola de Lame.* Rotz calls the ſuppoſed New Holland *the land of Java*; and to the north are *Florez* and *Tymor.* His Taprobana is Sumatra; and his Little Java, modern Java: while in Pigaſetta's voyage, 1522, Balli is Little Java; and Greater Java is the iſland now ſo called. Upon the whole the author inclines to retract his opinion that the Greater Java of theſe maps may be Borneo: and rather to infer that, in the enthuſiaſm of enterprize, after the voyage of Magalhaens, the Spaniards and Portugueſe had diſcovered the northern parts of New Holland, more than a century before the pretended Dutch diſcoveries. But neither interfere with the diſcovery of the S. E. part by our immortal Cook.

invidious

New Holland.

invidious to rob that great man of this important and immediate conſequence of his prior diſcoveries.

The Portugueſe being ſupplanted by the Dutch, the latter are regarded by the learned preſident De Broſſes as the chief diſcoverers of Auſtralaſia, between the year 1616 and 1644.[1] The firſt diſcovery he dates in the month of October 1616, when the weſtern extremity was explored by Hartog. The *northern* part, called *Diemen's Land*, was diſcloſed by another Dutch navigator, named Zeachen, who beſtowed the appellation in honour of Anthony Van Diemen, governor general in the Eaſt Indies, who returned to Europe with incredible treaſures in 1631. It is to be concluded that this governor encouraged ſuch diſcoveries, for his name was impoſed on various regions in this part of the world. In like manner Carpenteria was named from General Carpenter, being diſcovered in 1628.

In 1642 that celebrated navigator Taſman leaving Batavia with two ſhips, performed almoſt a circuit of Auſtralaſia, and diſcovered the *ſouthern* land of *Van Diemen*, with New Zealand, and ſome iſles of leſs conſequence. It would be foreign to the preſent purpoſe to detail the other diſcoveries which preceded the voyages of Cook in 1768, 1772, and 1776, which, from the ſuperior amplitude and accuracy of the details, may be ſaid to amount to a new diſcovery.

The eaſtern coaſt having been carefully examined by Cook, and juſtly appearing of great importance, was formally taken poſſeſſion of in the name of the king of Great Britain 1770. On the cloſe of the American war it being difficult to ſelect a proper place of tranſportation for criminals ſentenced to that puniſhment by the laws of their country, this new territory was at length preferred in 1786, and the firſt ſhip ſailed from Spithead on the 30th January 1787, and arrived on the 20th of the ſame month in the following year.[2] Botany Bay being found to be a ſtation of inferior advantages to what were expected, and no ſpot appearing proper for the colony, it was immediately reſolved by Governor Phillip to transfer it to another excellent inlet, about twelve miles further to the north, called Port Jackſon, on the ſouth ſide of which, at a ſpot called Sidney Cove, this ſettlement is now fixed.

[1] De Broſſes, i. 426.

[2] Collins, p. ii.

Port

Port Jackſon is one of the nobleſt harbours in the world, extending about fourteen miles in length, with numerous creeks or coves.* This new colony met with conſiderable difficulties in regard to ſubſiſtence, and the expence was conſidered as too great for the object. But men of more extenſive and philoſophical views beheld with complacence the deſign of transferring the Engliſh race and name to ſuch a diſtant and important region of the globe, which might ſupply new objects to commerce and ſcience, and in the courſe of a few centuries preſent as it were another America, a country of riſing knowledge and civilization, in the midſt of a benighted and ſavage region of the globe. Nor were views of ambition and glory undelighted with this new diffuſion of the great and ſurpriſing people of a remote European iſle, in the moſt diſtant extremities of the navigable ocean. NEW HOLLAND.

The general eye, however, little accuſtomed to ſuch teleſcopic views, only beheld the preſent difficulties and expenditure, and from the degraded character of the maſs of the coloniſts expected nothing but confuſion, inteſtine broils, and conſequent dereliction. It is however to be hoped that, as ſituation is frequently the ſole cauſe of crime, a change in this reſpect may gradually lead to moral conduct. In all events thoſe periods have elapſed in which children were held contaminated by the faults of their fathers; and in the courſe of a generation or two the ſtream may run pure, while the mud of the fountain has ſubſided. And to the eye of a candid philoſopher, who cannot, with the fanatic Rouſſeau, prefer the crimes of ſavages to the faults of civilized ſociety, it may perhaps appear that even now the new territory has gained an acceſſion of virtue. For where the murder of innocent children, in revenge for the faults of their parents, is not only permitted, but practiſed with attendant circumſtances of deliberate and infernal cruelty, an Engliſh criminal may comparatively be reputed a virtuous citizen.[3] It is indeed to be lamented that the puniſhment of death ſo frequent in England, and ſo uſeleſs in every point of view, is not almoſt univerſally changed into tranſportation; and in the few inſtances in which it is

* Broken Bay is another moſt capacious inlet, being an eſtuary of the Hawkſbury, and probably of other rivers, while Port Jackſon only receives two or three ſmall ſtreams.

[3] Collins, p. 587.

unavoidable

New Holland. unavoidable it ought to be accompanied with long and lugubrious ſolemnity, as in ſome parts of Germany. In one caſe, in particular, life is ſported with, when it might be of the utmoſt conſequence to a riſing colony. A young woman convicted of child-murder is impelled by motives of ſhame and honour, which deſpiſe every human law; but removed from this ſituation, ſhe may become a fruitful and excellent mother.

Some unexpected misfortunes attended the new colony, the ſheep being ſtolen, while the cattle wandered into the woods. Meanwhile turtle and birds were procured from Howe iſland, and a ſmall ſettlement was made in Norfolk iſland, as a more fertile ſpot, but eſpecially with a view to the cultivation of the flax plant of the New Zealand kind, from which great expectations were entertained. For a minute account of the progreſs of this intereſting colony till 1797, the reader may conſult the work of Mr. Collins, who held an eminent ſituation in the eſtabliſhment; and which, from the details of ſavage life and manners, and the ſingular character of the colony itſelf, cannot fail to preſent moſt new and important views of human nature and ſociety. A ſpace of about fifty miles around the colony had then been explored, and two rivers called Nepean and Hawkſbury, and ſome mountains, had been diſcovered. The cattle were found grazing in a remote meadow, in 1795, after they had been loſt for ſeven years, and had increaſed to a ſurpriſing degree. The moſt recent accounts ſeem to authenticate the flouriſhing ſtate of the colony. The mode of cultivation has been improved, coal and rock ſalt diſcovered; and there is room to expect that this wide territory will not be found deficient in the uſual riches of nature.

Inhabitants. Theſe hiſtorical outlines being premiſed, it will be proper to offer a brief and indeed neceſſarily defective deſcription of this new continent, as it is conceived to be, in its original ſtate. From the accounts of various navigators, there is room to infer that this extenſive tract is peopled by three or four races of men, thoſe obſerved in the S. W. being deſcribed as different from thoſe in the N.,* and both from thoſe in the

* Yet the deſcription of our great navigator Dampier, who viſited this part in 1688, preſents a great ſimilarity with that of the natives in our own colony near Port Jackſon. (Vol. i. p. 462.)

E., with whom alone we are intimately acquainted. Theſe are perhaps in the moſt early ſtage of ſociety which has yet been diſcovered in any part of the globe. They are merely divided into families, the ſenior being ſtyled Be-ana, or Father, which higheſt of their titles they alſo applied to Governor Phillip. Each family or tribe has a particular place of reſidence, and is diſtinguiſhed by adding *gal* to the name of the place; thus the ſouthern ſhore of Botany Bay is called Gwea, and the tribe there Gwea-gal. Another tribe, numerous and muſcular, has the ſingular prerogative of exacting a tooth from young men of other families, the ſole token of government or ſubordination No religion whatever is known, though they have a faint idea of a future exiſtence, and think their people return to the clouds, whence they originally fell. They may be ſaid to be exactly one degree above the brute creation; and, like monkies, are great mimics. They are of a low ſtature, and ill made; the arms, legs, and thighs, being remarkably thin, perhaps owing to their poor living on fiſh, the only food of thoſe on the coaſt, while a few in the woods ſubſiſt on ſuch animals as they can catch, and climb trees for honey, flying ſquirrels, and opoſſums.[4] The features of the women are not unpleaſant, though approaching to the negro. The black buſhy beards of the men, and the bone or reed which they thruſt through the cartilage of the noſe, gives them a diſguſting appearance; which is not improved by the practice of rubbing fiſh oil into their ſkins, as a protection from the air and moſkitos, ſo that in hot weather the ſtench is intolerable. They colour their faces with white or red clay. The women are marked by the loſs of the two firſt joints of the little finger of the left hand, as they were ſuppoſed to be in the way when they coiled their fiſhing lines. It is however not improbable that this practice, and the extraction of a tooth from the boys, may be mere initiations, rude leſſons that they may learn to bear pain with apathy. The children are ſeldom diſfigured except by accidents from fire; and their ſight is ſurpriſingly acute. Some are nearly as black as African negroes, while others exhibit a copper or Malay colour, but the hair is long, not woolly like the African. Their noſes are flat, noſtrils wide, ſunk eyes, thick brows and lips, with a mouth of pro-

NEW HOLLAND.

[4] Collins, 550.

New Holland. digious width, but the teeth white and even. "Many had very prominent jaws; and there was one man who, but for the gift of ſpeech, might very well have paſſed for an orang-outang. He was remarkably hairy; his arms appeared of an uncommon length; in his gait he was not perfectly upright; and in his whole manner ſeemed to have more of the brute, and leſs of the human ſpecies, about him, than any of his countrymen. Thoſe who have been in that country will, from this outline of him, recollect old We-rahng."[5]

The huts are moſt rudely conſtructed of the bark of trees, in the form of an oven, the fire being at the entrance, while within are ſmoke and naſtineſs. Here they ſleep promiſcuouſly, if not interrupted by their frequent enmities and aſſaſſinations. Fiſh are killed with a kind of prong, or taken, by the women, with lines of bark and hooks of the mother of pearl oyſter, rubbed on a ſtone till the proper form be obtained: the fiſh are often broiled on a fire laid on ſand in the canoe. Beaſts are taken in a kind of toils. Caterpillars and worms are likewiſe articles of food. The canoes are made of bark extended on a timber frame.

Manners and Cuſtoms. The gallantry of theſe ſavages towards the fair ſex Rouſſeau would doubtleſs have greatly admired. The courtſhip conſiſts in watching the lady's retirement, and then knocking her down with repeated blows of a club, or wooden ſword; after which the truly matrimonial victim is led ſtreaming with blood to her future huſband's party, when a ſcene enſues too ſhocking to relate. The woman thus raviſhed is called a wife; and polygamy is common. Both ſexes are naked; and the girls firſt learned from the Europeans that there was ſuch a thing as ſhame. Parturition is eaſy, and a few hours after the mother walks about her uſual buſineſs. The infant is for a few days placed on a piece of ſoft bark, but is ſoon removed to the mother's ſhoulders, where it ſits with its little legs acroſs her neck, ſecuring itſelf by catching hold of her hair. The name is transferred from ſome bird, beaſt, or fiſh. The boys throw reeds and balls, and amuſe themſelves with ſtealing little girls, whom they beat and abuſe in imitation of the marriage ceremo-

[5] Collins, 554.

nies.

nies. The ſolemnity of paying the tribute of teeth ſeems to be performed every four years, and is repreſented in many plates publiſhed by Mr. Collins, being a truly ſingular delineation of ſavage life. In ſome parts of this ceremony the form and character of man ſeem deſpiſed, and the ſuperiority of brutes acknowledged, by walking like quadrupeds, and the ambitious imitation of a tail. Power is however ſuppoſed to be conferred over the dog and the kangooroo, and the other parts ſeem an initiation in war and pain: but the whole is ſtrangely degrading to the dignity of human nature.* New Holland.

Theſe poor ſavages are alſo ſlaves of ſuperſtition, believing in magic and witchcraft and ghoſts, the latter being the nightmare: they have alſo ſpells againſt thunder and lightning, and pretend to foretell events by the meteors called falling ſtars. They are ſubject to a diſeaſe reſembling a violent itch; but for their venereal complaints they ſeem indebted to Europeans. They have not only perſonal property in their weapons and fiſhing tackle, but ſome are ſuppoſed hereditary proprietors of certain ſpots, perhaps aſſigned as rewards for public ſervices, or acts of great bravery. They have names for the ſun and moon, ſome few ſtars, the Magellanic clouds, and the milky way. Young people are buried, but thoſe who have paſſed the middle age are burnt; a rude tumulus being erected by way of tomb.

Of the language Mr. Collins has given an ample vocabulary, and it is reported to be grateful to the ear, expreſſive, and ſonorous, having no analogy with any other known language; but the dialects of the various regions ſeem entirely different. Whether theſe people be remains of aboriginal tribes from the moſt ſouthern extremities of Aſia, or have paſſed from Madagaſcar and the eaſtern ſhores of Africa, are matters of future diſcovery and inveſtigation. Language.

From its ſituation on the ſouthern ſide of the equator, the ſeaſons are like thoſe of the ſouthern part of Africa and America, the reverſe of thoſe in Europe; the ſummer correſponding with our winter, and the ſpring with autumn. Mr. Collins found the weather in December very Climate and Seaſons.

* "Is man no more than this? Conſider him well.—Thou art the thing itſelf: unaccommodated man is no more but ſuch a poor, bare, forked animal as thou art." Shakſpere's Lear, act iii. ſcene iv.

New Holland.

hot, but the climate was allowed to be fine and ſalubrious. The rains were heavy, appearing to fall chiefly about the full and change of the moon; and at intervals there were ſtorms of thunder and lightning. In Norfolk iſland there is what may be called a rainy ſeaſon, from February to Auguſt. As the ſouth is in this hemiſphere the region of cold, there muſt be great difference in the temperature of this widé continent; which may alſo be affected as uſual by chains of mountains, and other circumſtances yet undiſcovered.

Face of the Country.

It would be idle to attempt any delineation of the general aſpect of this country, of which we only know the mere ſkirts and extremities; ſo that a traveller who had landed at Breſt, and inſpected a ſmall portion of Bretagne, might as well aſpire to give an account of Europe, while in fact he knows but little of France. The ſmall particle known ſeems hilly, but not mountainous, partly covered with tall trees clear from underwood; which laſt however covers extenſive tracts towards the ſhores, in which large ſwamps alſo occur.[6] The ſoil around Botany Bay is black and fat, and fertile of plants, whence the name aroſe; but theſe favourable appearances were counteracted by great diſadvantages. Conſiderable quantities of maiz and wheat have ſince been raiſed, particularly on Norfolk iſland; and it is to be hoped that when experience has indicated the proper means, this may be rendered a productive country.

Rivers, Lakes, and Mountains.

Concerning the rivers, lakes, and mountains of New Holland there is little information, but they may probably be diſcovered to be on a very large and extenſive ſcale. A chain of mountains is ſaid to run N. and S. between 50 and 60 miles inland, but not eaſily acceſſible on account of numerous deep ravines. Baſaltic columns often appear; and in Howe iſland they riſe to ſuch a height as to be viſible at the diſtance of twelve leagues. Mr. Pennant repreſents the timber of the foreſts as brittle and entirely uſeleſs; but this defect may be remedied by plantations, European fruit trees having already proſpered greatly; and it is probable that the interior regions may preſent a vegetation very diffe-

[6] Pennant's Outlines, iv. 108; but this excellent naturaliſt ſeems prejudiced againſt the country and the colony.

rent

rent from that of the coaſt. It is reaſonably inferred that the vine might be planted with great ſucceſs. NEW HOLLAND.

This wide country preſents a peculiarity in the animals, moſtly of the opoſſum kind, and leaping habitually upon the hind legs: the chief in ſize is the kangooroo, ſome kinds of which are elegant. The native dogs are of the chacal kind, and never bark; they are of two colours, black, or white with tinges of red, and ſome are very handſome.[7] Among the few other quadrupeds yet deſcribed are weazels and ant-eaters, with that ſingular animal the duck-billed platypus, in which nature ſeems to delight in tranſgreſſing her uſual law, the jaws of a quadruped being elongated into the complete bill of a bird. Among the birds are the brown eagle, ſeveral falcons, and many elegant parrots, ravens, crows, a large king-fiſher: there are alſo buſtards and partridges, with ſome pigeons. A new kind of caſſowary muſt not be omitted, ſaid to be ſeven feet in length:[8] it is not uncommon, and the fleſh taſtes like beef. Among the aquatic birds are the heron, a kind of ibis or curlew, and gigantic pelicans. There are alſo peculiar ducks and geeſe; and the black ſwan is a rare progeny of the new continent. "It is in ſize ſuperior to the white. The bill is of a rich ſcarlet; near the tip is a ſmall yellow ſpot. The whole plumage of the moſt intenſe black, except the primaries and ſecondaries, which are white, the eyes black, the feet duſky: it is found in Hawkſbury river, and other freſh waters near Broken bay, and has all the graceful actions of the white kind."[9] Zoology.

The tortoiſes, called green turtle, abound in the iſles of Norfolk and Howe; and likewiſe appear on the coaſt of New Holland. There are ſeveral lizards and ſerpents. Of the fiſh may be named dolphins, porpoiſes, and a ſingular amphibious kind which leaps like a frog, by the help of ſtrong breaſt fins; ſo that nature has not only here blended the bird with the quadruped, but brought fiſh upon land. The blue crab, of an ultramarine colour, is of exquiſite beauty.

[7] Collins, 567. [8] Pennant, iv. 127. [9] Ib. 130.

As

New Holland. Mineralogy.

As the interior mountains of this immenſe region have not been explored, little can be ſaid concerning the mineralogy, which is probably richeſt in the northern, or hotteſt parts. In 1797 a ſhip from Bengal being wrecked on the ſouthern ſhore, of ſeventeen men only three reached the ſettlement, after a journey of eighty days, and on their way diſcovered immenſe ſtrata of coal, which may prove far more valuable than mines of gold.[10] Perhaps the veſſels recently ſent to explore the ſouthern parts may make other important diſcoveries, beſides completing the geography of the ſhores.*

If this account ſhould ſeem rather too extenſive, let it be conſidered that it deſcribes a new continent, a real Terra Auſtralis, now little known, but which in the year 1900, or 2000, may be found to preſent ſuch great and ſingular topics, that a learned and preciſe pen may dedicate a large volume of geography to this one portion of the globe.

II. Papua, or New Guinea.

First Diſcovery.

This country is one of the moſt intereſting in Auſtralaſia, as partaking of the opulence of the Moluccas, and their ſingular varieties of plants and animals. The land of Papua is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered by Saavedra, a Spaniſh Captain, in 1528, who had ſailed from Mexico by the command of Cortez, to explore the Spice Iſlands from that quarter.[11] It is aſſerted that Saavedra impoſed the name of New Guinea, as believing that this region was under the ſame meridian with the African Guinea; but as it is ſcarcely poſſible that a mariner ſhould be ſo much deceived, it is more likely that this appellation, which ſome ſay was only given by Le Maire near a century after, was merely conſidered as ſynonymous with another, that of the "Iſles of Gold." Other Spaniſh navigators enlarged this diſcovery; and the ſtrait between this country and New Holland was explored by Cook, while the

[10] Collins, 617.

* The ſouthern ſhores are ſaid to have been explored by Peter van Nuitz, in Jan. 1627. De Broſſes, i. 433. They ſeem to recede in the middle: and towards the E. a vaſt bay, with an iſle, is ſaid to have been recently diſcovered.

[11] De Broſſes, i. 159.

learned Preſident De Broſſes, and even Bougainville the French circumnavigator, had doubted whether ſuch a paſſage exiſted."[12] This extenſive iſland is ſtill far from being completely inveſtigated. On the north what was formerly conceived to be a ſtrait is delineated with the ſoundings in Mr. Arrowſmith's chart of the Paciſic, under the name of Maclure's inlet: and an oppoſite large bay on the E. was alſo conceived to inſulate another portion. In the S. E. Dampier's ſtrait divides Papua from New Britain; but it is not improbable that in this direction the Louiſiad of Bougainville may be diſcovered to be joined, at leaſt in part, with Papua, while other parts may conſiſt of detached iſles. It is thought that the unfortunate La Perouſe was completing this diſcovery when fate terminated his labours. Amidſt this uncertainty Papua is conceived to be a vaſt iſland, extending from the Cape, abſurdly ſtyled of Good Hope, in the mariner's very confined vocabulary, but more properly White Point, in the N. W., probably to Cape Rodney in the S. E., a length of more than 1200 miles, by a medial breadth of perhaps 300, and thus far ſuperior in ſize to Borneo, formerly reputed the largeſt of iſlands. PAPUA.

On this extenſive territory, in a ſituation ſo highly favoured by nature, and probably enriched with the choiceſt productions, there is no European ſettlement. The inhabitants of the northern part are called Papous, whence the name of the country. The traditions bear that they are brethren of the Moluccans, and the language ſeems to have no affinity with that of New South Wales, but is probably connected with that of Borneo, &c. on the weſt, and that of New Britain and the iſles on the other ſide, being part of the wide Malay diffuſion. The inhabitants are black, and even ſaid to have the woolly hair of Original Population.

[12] Introduction to Cook's laſt Voyage (by Biſhop Douglas, p. xvi.). The reader who wiſhes for more particular details concerning the progreſs of diſcoveries in the Pacific may be referred to the work of De Broſſes, often quoted; and to Mr. Dalrymple's collection of voyages in the Paciſic, 1770, 4to. The learned French publication was tranſlated by John Callander, Edin. 1766, 3 vols. 8vo, who ſeems diſpoſed to paſs it as an original under the title of *Terra Auſtralis Cognita.*

[13] See Vocabularies in De Broſſes, i. 410.

negroes;

Papua. negroes; but this laſt circumſtance will probably be diſcovered, as in New Holland, to proceed from art, and in ſome parts it would ſeem that the inhabitants have the true Malay complexion and features. In the interior is a race called Haraforas,* who live in trees, which they aſcend by a notched pole, drawing it after them to prevent ſurpriſe. The appearance of the Papuans and their habitations is groteſque, the latter being built on ſtages in the water; in which however they reſemble the Borneans and other nations in the Aſiatic iſles. The women ſeem the moſt induſtrious in making mats, and pots of clay, which they afterwards burn with dry graſs, or bruſh wood; nay they will even weild the axe while the men are indolent, or preparing for the chace of wild hogs."†

"The aſpect of theſe people is frightful and hideous; the men are ſtout in body, their ſkin of a ſhining black, rough, and often disfigured with marks like thoſe occaſioned by the leproſy; their eyes are very large, their noſes flat, mouth from ear to ear, their lips amazingly thick, eſpecially the upper lip; their hair woolly, either a ſhining black or fiery red: M. Sonnerat imagines the laſt to be owing to ſome powder. It is dreſſed in a vaſt buſh, ſo as to reſemble a mop; ſome are three feet in circumference, the leaſt two and a half; in this they ſtick their comb, conſiſting of four or five diverging teeth, with which they occaſionally dreſs their frizzled locks to give them a greater bulk; they ſometimes ornament them with feathers of the birds of Paradiſe; others add to their deformity by boring their noſes, and paſſing through them rings, pieces of bone, or ſticks; and many, by way of ornament, hang round their necks the tuſks of boars. The heads of the women are of leſs ſize than thoſe of the men, and in their left ear they wear ſmall braſs rings. The men go naked, excepting a ſmall wrapper round their waiſts, made of the fibres of the cocoa. The women uſe a covering, in general of the courſe Surat *baftas*, tucked up behind, ſo as to leave

* Forreſt, p. 109, ſays that ſome of them have long hair, but they are moſtly mere Papuans of a lower claſs.

† Forreſt's voyage to New Guinea. Pennant's Outlines, iv. 208.

their bodies and thighs expoſed to view. The children have no ſort of cloathing."[15] PAPUA.

The religious tenets of the Papuans have been little examined. They make tombs of the rude coral rock, ſometimes with ſculptures. The chief commerce is with the Chineſe, from whom they purchaſe their inſtruments and utenſils. Their returns are ambergreeſe, ſea ſlugs, tortoiſe ſhell, ſmall pearls, birds of paradiſe, lories, and other birds, which the Papuans dry with great ſkill. Some ſlaves are alſo exported, probably captives taken in inteſtine wars. Some were offered to Captain Forreſt at a low rate, but he had before bought an eminent linguiſt.

Our great navigator Dampier, whoſe work beſpeaks wonderful intelligence for that period, made ſeveral diſcoveries on the coaſt of Papua, and the adjacent iſles. He was particularly ſtruck with the proas, which are pictureſque and well-managed. As this country has been little explored even recent accounts are very imperfect.

The coaſts of Papua are generally lofty, and, inland, mountain riſes above mountain, richly clothed with woods. The ſhores abound with cocoa trees, and the whole country ſeems to have impreſſed every navigator with delight, and well deſerves more cultivated and induſtrious inhabitants. But by a ſingular fatality many extenſive and beautiful portions of the globe are thinly inhabited by a few ſavages, while cold and barren provinces are the crowded ſeats of civilized nations. Could a whole nation be transferred from the north of Europe to Papua, what a change in ſituation and ſentiments, what an acceſſion of private plenty and happineſs, and what an increaſe of public power!

The natural hiſtory of this country is little known, but the zoology is ſtriking and romantic. Papua is the choſen reſidence of the ſplendid and ſingular birds of paradiſe, of which ten or twelve ſorts are enumerated by Mr. Pennant. They ſeem to be chiefly caught in the adjacent iſles of Arroo, being ſuppoſed to breed in Papua, and reſide there during the wet monſoon; while during the dry, or weſtern, they retire to Arroo, migrating in flocks of thirty or forty. During their flight they cry like ſtarlings, but when ſurpriſed with a ſtrong gale they

[15] Pennant's Outlines, iv. 202. Sonnerat, ii. 122, ſays that they reſemble the people of Guinea on the African coaſt, which led to the name of New Guinea.

Papua. croak like ravens, and aſcend to the ſuperior regions of the air. They alight on the higheſt trees, ſeeming to feed on berries, and according to ſome on nutmegs and butterflies: and are either ſhot with blunt arrows, or caught with bird-lime, or nooſes. The bowels and breaſt bone being extracted, they are dried with ſmoke and ſulphur, ſold for nails or bits of iron, and exported to Banda. Papua alſo boaſts of elegant parrots and lories; while the crowned, or gigantic, pigeon almoſt equals a turkey in ſize.

Captain Forreſt, to whom we are indebted for an intereſting voyage in theſe ſeas, only viſited the harbour of Dory in the northern part of Papua, ſo that our knowledge of this large iſland remains extremely imperfect. He obſerved, at a conſiderable diſtance, the mountains of Arfac of a remarkable height. Near the harbour of Dory he found in ſome little iſles abundance of nutmeg trees, and there is room to infer that the land of Papua is not deſtitute of the ſame productions, and may perhaps alſo boaſt of cloves. Now that the Spice Iſlands are reſtored to the Dutch, by the treaty of 1801, a ſettlement in Papua might become an object of ſerious conſideration; and by the diſcoveries of our able countryman Dampier we have certainly a claim equal to that of any other nation.

Papuan Iſles. Some of the ſmall iſlands, adjacent to this comparative continent, are better known than the main land of Papua. At the N. W. extremity the chief iſles are Waijoo, and Salwatti; and the ſmaller iſles of Woleket, Famia, Piamis, Wagiol, Luib, Wiag, and Siang, may be added from Captain Forreſt's chart, for the ſake of fixing the boundary between Auſtralaſia and the iſlands in the oriental archipelago; Gag and Gibbi, from their proximity to Gilolo, belonging to the latter.

Further to the S. are the Papuan iſlands of Arroo and Timorlaut, the boundary here paſſing on the E. of Nila, one of the ſmall Aſiatic iſles, among which Serro muſt alſo be claſſed. On the E. of Banda the boundary may paſs on the S. of Mamabek, then winding N. W. to the E. of Myſol will leave Popo in the oriental archipelago; while Woleket, as already mentioned, claſſes with the Papuan iſlands. This being the only part of the diviſion between the Aſiatic iſlands and Auſtralaſia,

Auſtralaſia, which is rather intricate, theſe hints will not be found unneceſſary for the ſake of preciſion. PAPUAN ISLES.

Waijoo, or Wadjoo, is an iſle of conſiderable ſize, and is ſaid to contain 100,000 inhabitants. The land is high, with loſty mountains, and on the north ſide are two excellent harbours Piapis and Offak.* Waijoo.

Salwatti is alſo a populous iſland, governed by a Raja. The people of theſe two large iſlands reſemble thoſe of the main land of Papua, being a ſingular race of horrible appearance, and great ferocity. They live on fiſh, or turtle, and ſago, that tree abounding in Papua, but the ſubſtance is chiefly prepared by the people of Waijoo.

Timorlaut is another Papuan iſland of conſiderable ſize, but of which there is no particular account. The Arroo iſlands appear, in Arrowſmith's chart, divided into five by intervening ſtraits, and, as already mentioned, are the remarkable ſeats of the birds of Paradiſe. The chief product is ſago, and the people make expeditions to the main-land, where they ſeize captives and ſell them at Banda, a remarkable feature in the negro character at this great diſtance from Africa. In political geography the Arroo iſles have been conſidered, ſince 1623, as belonging to the Dutch Eaſt India Company, and ſubſervient to thoſe of Banda.'' Arroo.

On the N. of the main-land of Papua are the iſles of Myſory and Jobi, with ſeveral others of ſmaller conſequence; nor indeed are the diſcoveries ſufficiently complete to trace with preciſion the northern ſhores of Papua, or the iſles adjacent.

It ſeems probable that the land called Louiſiad by Bougainville, is either an extenſion of Papua, or iſlands adjacent to it on the S. E. In either caſe, when it ſhall have been ſufficiently explored, the deſcription will probably fall into this diviſion.

* See Forreſt's Voyage and the Chart. Mr. Pennant, Outlines, iv. 205, ſays on the *ſouth* ſide, which Forreſt did not viſit. It is obſerved with regret that ſuch groſs inaccuracies are frequent in the works of that ingenious but haſty compiler.

'' De Broſſes, i. 443.

III. New Britain, and New Ireland, with the Solomon Isles.

First Discovery.

New Britain was firſt explored and named by Dampier, that navigator having paſſed a ſtrait, to which his name is given, between this country and Papua. In 1767 Captain Carteret paſſed through a channel between New Britain and New Ireland, which laſt is a long ſlip of land ſtretching from N. W. to S. E. and it is alſo probable that New Britain may be found to be divided into two or more iſlands. In theſe parts the nutmeg tree is found abundant, being perhaps the moſt remote region, towards the eaſt, of that valuable plant. Dampier viſited a bay in New Britain called Port Montague, A. D. 1700, and found the land mountainous and woody, but interſperſed with fertile vales and beautiful ſtreams. The country ſeemed very populous, the natives reſembling thoſe of Papua, and navigating their canoes with great ſkill. The chief product ſeemed to be cocoa nuts, but there were yams, and other roots particularly ginger; and the ſea and rivers ſwarmed with fiſh. In the main land, and adjacent iſles, there are ſeveral volcanoes.

Inhabitants.

Captain Carteret found the natives of New Ireland very hoſtile, having lances headed with flint. Their faces were ſtreaked with white, and their hair dabbed with powder of the ſame colour. They are black, and ſaid to be woolly headed, but without the thick lips or flat noſe of the negro. Some of the canoes of New Ireland were ninety feet in length, formed out of a ſingle tree. Bougainville alſo viſited this country, and obſerved here the pepper plant, and that ſingular inſect the walking leaf; while, among the numerous birds, was the great crowned pigeon.

A more ample deſcription is unneceſſary, as theſe countries are far from being completely diſcovered. The ſame obſervation muſt be extended to what are called the Solomon Iſlands, which appear to have been diſcovered by Mendana, who ſailed from Lima to the weſtward 1575. The name was impoſed, as uſual, by ignorant mariners, who ſuppoſed

ſuppoſed that king Solomon derived his gold from theſe iſlands; but while it is even doubtful whether the iſles now called thoſe of Solomon be the ſame with thoſe of Mendana, the appellation becomes doubly abſurd, and it would be better to impoſe ſome new name.[16] Inhabitants.

The Solomon Iſlands, as laid down in Mr. Arrowſmith's chart of the Pacific, may be conſidered as a large group, extending from Lord Anſon's iſle, or the Bouka of Bougainville, in the N. W. to the iſle called Egmont by Carteret in the S. E. Some of the iſlands, towards the centre, ſeem of conſiderable ſize, particularly in length. If theſe be the Solomon Iſles of the Spaniards, it is aſſerted that they are rich in gold. Some of the natives were of a copper colour, others of a deep black, with a wrapper of linen around the waiſt, while the neck was ornamented with little beads of gold. The canoes were ſmall, two being commonly faſtened together. In baſkets of palm leaves they carry a kind of bread made of roots.[17] Theſe iſlands are the land of the Arſacides of Bougainville. Solomon Iſlands.

IV. New Caledonia, and the New Hebudes.

Theſe regions were diſcovered by Captain Cook in 1774; but Bougainville in 1768 had ſailed through the New Hebudes; and the moſt northern is ſuppoſed to be the land of the Holy Ghoſt of Quiros.

New Caledonia is a large iſland, the ſouthern part of which in particular has been little explored. The natives are ſaid to be a muſcular race, of a deep brown complexion, reſembling thoſe of New Zealand. Future diſcovery may add ſeveral intereſting particulars concerning this diviſion. D'Entrecaſteaux, who was ſent in queſt of La Perouſe, viſited the ſouthern coaſt of New Caledonia.

The north weſtern part of this large iſland was explored by Captain Cook, who ſays that this diſtrict was called Balade. The name of Tee,

[16] Dalrymple, i. 47, and ſee De Broſſes, i. 173. Mr. Dalrymple thinks, p. 46, that the Solomon Iſles of Mendana are the New Britain of Dampier. See alſo his Diſſertation prefixed to vol. i.

[17] De Broſſes, i. 259.

which in the Society Iſles implies a guardian ſpirit, ſeems here to denote a chief. The women are more chaſte than in the other iſles of the Pacific. The houſes are neat, ſome having carved door poſts, and they riſe in the form of a bee hive, warm, but full of ſmoke. The dreſs is a ſlight wrapper; and the hair, which is frizzled, not woolly, is ornamented with a comb, while the beard is worn ſhort. They ſubſiſt on roots and fiſh, the country being very barren and rocky. In New Caledonia Dr. Forſter found large rocks of quartz, with layers of gold coloured mica, blended with ſerpentine, hornblende, talc, and garnets.* The bread fruit and cocoa nut are ſcarce; but many new plants were obſerved.

Mallicollo. Among the New Hebudes Captain Cook has given the moſt particular account of Mallicollo in the north, and Tanna in the ſouth. Dr. Forſter thought that the people of the former, who are ugly and diminutive, had a language different from any they met with in the

Tanna. voyage. In Tanna there is a remarkable volcano, with ſome hot ſprings. Here are found plantains, ſugar canes, yams, and ſeveral kinds of fruit trees. The natives rather reſemble thoſe of New Holland than the Friendly Iſlanders, and are particularly dexterous in the uſe of the ſpear.

* When Dr. Forſter went with Cook, on his ſecond voyage, 1772, mineralogy was in a very imperfect ſtate, Bergman, who publiſhed his book in 1782, being the father of the improved ſyſtem now followed. Yet Dr. Forſter's obſervations are very feeble and meagre, even for that period; and his tedious quarto volume is filled with declamation, while ſolid facts are neglected. He is, however, more minute than uſual concerning the ſtrata of New Caledonia and the New Hebudes. Reefs of coral rock abound in this archipelago. In New Caledonia the ſoil of the plains is a ſandy black mould, the ſides of the hills, yellow clay with mica; the higher parts of quartz and mica, tinged red, or orange, with iron. Garnets are alſo found in petroſilex, and in ſeveral places white tranſparent quartz, ſoap-rock, and aſbeſtos. He ſuppoſes that the mountains of New Caledonia and New Zealand are the moſt likely to contain rich metallic veins, as being compoſed of primitive rock.

In Mallicollo the ſoil is of a yellowiſh ſandy clay. In the iſle of Ambrrym (Ambrin) there is a volcano, and of that in Tanna, the aſhes diffuſe a fertile ſoil. Tanna alſo preſents cliffs of clay, mixed with aluminous earth, lumps of pure chalk, and tripoli. Sulphur abounds, with ſome marks of copper.

V. New Zealand.

This country was firſt diſcovered by Taſman in 1642, but he did not land. The natives however came on board, and ſome intercourſe took place, during which ſeven of the Dutch, who had gone aſhore unarmed, were cruelly ſlaughtered. The people were deſcribed to be of a colour between brown and yellow, with long black hair reſembling the Japaneſe. First Diſcovery

Our great navigator Cook explored theſe regions in 1770, and diſcovered a ſtrait which divides the country into two large iſlands. The ſouthern was ſuppoſed to be called by the natives Tavia Poenamoo, and the northern Eaheianomawe, names which equal the Ruſſian in length, and which might well be contracted. The firſt is not leſs than 600 B. miles in length, by about 150 in medial breadth; and the ſecond is little inferior in ſize.

One of theſe iſlands appears to be far more fertile than the other; but both enjoy a temperate climate, ſimilar to that of France. The natives were again obſerved to be of a brown complexion, little deeper than the Spaniſh, and ſome are even fair. They equal the talleſt Europeans in ſtature; and their features are commonly regular and pleaſing. It is ſingular to obſerve ſuch a diverſity between them and the natives of New Holland, when theory would expect to find them the ſame race of men. So far as preſent diſcoveries extend, the natives of New Holland and Papua ſeem to diſplay an African origin; while moſt of the other iſlands in the Pacific appear to have been peopled from Aſia.

Mr. Collins, to his intereſting account of the Engliſh colony in New South Wales, has ſubjoined ſome information concerning New Zealand, chiefly derived from two of the natives, who were carried to Norfolk iſland to teach the management of the flax, one of whom drew a rude map of his country, publiſhed by our author. Their features approach the European, and the noſe of one was aquiline. By their report the northern iſland is divided into eight diſtricts, governed by their reſpective-

New Zealand.

ſpective chiefs, and others who are ſubordinate to them. Theſe provinces are often in a ſtate of warfare; and the captives taken are undoubtedly devoured by the victors. At other times a little traffic is carried on, in flax; and green jad, of which they make axes and ornaments. On the weſt ſide of the northern iſle there is a large river, but only navigable for canoes. The ranks are, the chiefs, and their officers; the prieſts, whoſe authority is equal, if not ſuperior; and the common people.

Manners and Cuſtoms.

"The New Zealanders inter their dead; they alſo believe that the third day after the interment the heart ſeparates itſelf from the corpſe, and that this ſeparation is announced by a gentle breeze of wind, which gives warning of its approach to an inferior Ea-tooa (or divinity) that hovers over the grave, and who carries it to the clouds. In his chart Too-gee has marked an imaginary road which goes the lengthways of Eaheinomawe, viz. from Cook's ſtrait to the North Cape, which Too-gee calls Terry-inga. While the ſoul is received by the good Ea-tooa, an evil ſpirit is alſo in readineſs to carry the impure part of the corpſe to the above road, along which it is carried to Terry-inga, whence it is precipitated into the ſea.

"Suicide is very common among the New Zealanders, and this they often commit by hanging themſelves on the ſlighteſt occaſions; thus a woman who has been beaten by her huſband will perhaps hang herſelf immediately. In this mode of putting an end to their exiſtence both our viſitors ſeemed to be perfect adepts, having often threatened to hang themſelves, and ſometimes made very ſerious promiſes of putting it into execution, if they were not ſent to their own country. As theſe threats however were uſed in their gloomy moments, they were ſoon laughed out of them.

"It could not be diſcovered that they have any other diviſion of time than the revolution of the moon, until the number amounted to one hundred, which they term "Ta-iee E-tow," that is one Etow, or hundred moons; and it is thus they count their age, and calculate all other events.

"Hoo-doo and Too-gee both agreed that a great quantity of manufactured flax might be obtained for trifles, ſuch as axes, chiſſels, &c.; and

and ſaid that in moſt places the flax grows naturally in great quantities; in other parts it is cultivated by ſeparating the roots, and planting them out, three in one hole, at the diſtance of a foot from each other. They give a decided preference to the flax plant that grows here, both for quantity and ſize. NEW ZEALAND.

"It may be expected (ſays Governor King) that, after a ſix months acquaintance between us and the two New Zealanders, we ſhould not be ignorant of each others language. Myſelf and ſome of the officers, (who were ſo kind as to communicate the obſervations they obtained from our viſitors,) could make our ideas known, and tolerably well underſtood by them. They too, by intermixing what Engliſh words they knew with what we knew of their language, could make themſelves ſufficiently underſtood by us. During the time they were with us I did not poſſeſs any account of Captain Cook's Voyages, but ſince their departure I find from his firſt voyage that it has great ſimilitude to the general language ſpoken in thoſe ſeas."[18] Languages.

Captain Cook's laſt voyage contains conſiderable information relative to the ſouthern iſle, from which a few brief hints may be added, as this region only yields to Papua in ſize and conſequence. Storms were found to be not only frequent but violent, and often changed in their direction by the height of the mountains, which at theſe times are always loaded with vapours, whence it may ſeem that they are calcareous. The unhappy natives live in conſtant apprehenſions of mutual deſtruction; and each party earneſtly beſought Captain Cook to exterminate their enemies, a true picture of ſavage life, which is to be traced from the genuine practice and experience of human affairs, and not from idle theories of poetry, or of philoſophy. Their revenge is ſanguinary, and indulged even to the moſt brutal cannibaliſm; the more ſhocking as they believe that the ſoul of a man, devoured by his enemy, is doomed to perpetual fire. They have no *morai*, or place of worſhip; but the prieſts alone addreſs the gods for proſperity. It appears that the jad is found in lakes, to which it is borne down by the mountain torrents. This ſubſtance is called *Poenammoo*, and a lake being ſtyled *Tavi*, thence a miſtaken appellation has been given to the ſouthern iſland, by our

[18] Collins, p. 524.

NEW ZEALAND.

able navigator, as he himſelf remarks.[19] This candid obſervation affords an additional proof of the futility of many names admitted into our maps; and it muſt rarely occur that uncivilized nations have any general term for a country, or large iſland, as they cannot diſtinguiſh where there is no different object, nor ſtandard of compariſon.

The enormous lizards deſcribed by the natives are probably alligators. From the obſervations of the ſurgeon it appears that the baſes of the mountains are ſand-ſtone; that the ſoil reſembles yellow marl; and even the hills are covered with trees of the moſt lofty luxuriance, ſeeming to retain their foliage till expelled by the ſucceeding leaves in ſpring, for in June, which correſponds to our December, the verdure was complete. The mountainous nature of the country* ſeems to be an obſtacle to future improvement; but this remark may perhaps be confined to the northern part near Queen Charlotte's Sound, and a great diverſity may be naturally expected in ſuch wide regions. The flax of New Zealand has excited particular attention, being of a beautiful ſilky appearance, and the plant remarkably tall. The culture has been attempted both in France and England without ſucceſs; perhaps from ſome remarkable difference in ſoil, or the entire reverſion of ſeaſons. The birds ſeem to be often peculiar in ſpecies and colour; and it is not a little remarkable that, in this extenſive land, no quadruped was obſerved, except a few rats, and a kind of fox dog, which is a domeſtic animal with the natives. Nor was any uncommon mineral ſeen except the green jad, which, according to other accounts, is found in the channel of a large river in ſmall thin layers.

The general dreſs is an oblong garment made by knotting the ſilky flax: and the ears are ornamented with bits of jad or beads, the face being often beſmeared with a red paint, ſeemingly iron ochre mingled with greaſe. The habitations are far ſuperior to thoſe in New Hol-

[19] Third Voyage, i. 140. Yet this iſle ſeems to be called Poenammoo, in the map drawn by a native, and publiſhed by Mr. Collins.

* According to Dr. Forſter, Obſ. 31, the higheſt mountain obſerved in his voyage was mount Egmont, on the northern iſle of New Zealand, covered with perpetual ſnow, ſo that he argues the height to be fourteen thouſand feet. The climate, ib. 116, ſeems moiſt, and clouds are ſometimes obſerved of a beautiful green.

land;

land; and the boats are well built of planks, raiſed upon each other, and faſtened with ſtrong withes. Some are fifty feet long, and ſo broad as to be able to ſail without an out-rigger, but the ſmaller ſort commonly have one, and they often faſten two together by raſters. The large canoes will carry thirty men or more; and have often a head ingeniouſly carved, with a human face diſtorted by rage: for in ſavage life images are rarely pleaſant, but commonly ſhew the evil paſſions which are generally felt. They bake their fiſh in a rude oven; and the uſe of bread is ſupplied by a kind of fern, which yields a gelatinous ſubſtance like ſago. They are ingenious mechanics with their rude tools, which are moſtly of jad. Their weapons are ſpears and javelins, with the pa-too, a kind of club or rude battle-ax; and in combat they diſtort their features like demons. The yet warm bodies of their enemies are cut in pieces, broiled, and devoured with peculiar ſatisfaction.[20] The warlike actions of their anceſtors are preſerved in traditional ſongs, which are frequently ſung, and accompanied with their rude flute.* NEW ZEALAND.

VI. VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.

This is the laſt great diviſion yet diſcovered of the wide expanſe of Auſtralaſia. The name was impoſed by that eminent Dutch navigator Taſman, as already mentioned, in honour of the Dutch governor general in the Eaſt Indies.† It has been recently diſcovered to be an iſland, in the form of an oblong ſquare, about 160 B. miles in length by half that breadth, being divided from New Holland by a ſtrait, or rather channel, more than thirty leagues wide, which in recent maps is called Baſs's ſtrait, and contains a chain of ſmall iſlands running N. and S. First Diſcovery.

[20] Cook, ib. i. 162.

* Dr. Forſter, Obſ. 17. ſays that the ſouthern iſle preſents a thin ſtratum of black mould, under which ſeems to be a nephritic rock of pale yellow, interſected by veins of quartz. Baſalt, argillaceous ſhiſtus, and pumice, alſo appear.

† There is another Van Diemen's land, a northern cape of New Holland. Such duplicate names are injurious to the ſtudy of geography, and ought to be formally abrogated, if a Board of Nomenclature, ſo much wanted, were inſtituted. The ſouthern Van Diemen's land or one of the iſles of New Zealand, ſhould be called Taſmania, in honour of the diſcoverer.

DIEMEN'S LAND.

During his laſt voyage Captain Cook, in January 1777, viſited Diemen's land for ſupplies of wood and water, and graſs for the animals on board. They were met by ſome of the natives, who were entirely naked; of a common ſtature, but rather ſlender, the ſkin being black, and the hair as woolly as that of any native of Guinea, but their lineaments were more pleaſing than thoſe of African negroes. The hair and beards, and of ſome the faces, were ſmeared with red ointment. They ſeem to prefer birds to all other food, and the kangooroo would appear to be ſelected among animals, becauſe by walking on two legs it ſomewhat reſembles a bird. The land is chiefly of a good height, diverſified with hills and vallies, and every where of a greeniſh hue, being well wooded and watered. The Fluted Cape appears to be compoſed of a very fine white ſandſtone, which in many places bounds the ſhore, and the ſoil is either ſandy or conſiſts of a yellowiſh mould, and in ſome places of a reddiſh clay. The foreſt trees ſeem to be all of one kind, growing quite ſtraight to a great height, and may be well adapted for maſts. The only quadrupeds diſcovered were opoſſums and kangooroos; and the birds cannot differ much from thoſe of New Holland, to which there is as it were a paſſage by intermediate iſles. The hovels reſemble thoſe of New Holland; but ſometimes large trees are hollowed out by fire to the height of ſix or ſeven feet, ſo as to form a rude habitation. Captain Cook's account of the language of New Holland in general muſt be corrected from the more recent and exact information afforded by Mr. Collins.*

* Captain Flinders ſupplies ſome additional information in his "Obſervations on the Coaſt of Van Diemen's Land," &c. 1801. 4to. He ſays, p. 3, that the capes are moſtly baſaltic, and he includes the Fluted Cape, the columns being ſometimes ſingle, ſometimes grouped like ſtacks of chimnies. Upon the iſland of cape Barren are found kangooroos, and the new animal, called *womat* by the natives near Port Jackſon, reſembling a little bear. Furneaux's iſles are moſtly of a coarſe quartz, and likewiſe Wilſon's promontory in New South Wales; while the general rocks in the laſt are ſoft iſh grit and ironſtone. In general Van Diemen's land preſents a moſt dreary and inhoſpitable ſhore, mottled with rocks of white quartz and black baſalt. Port Dalrymple is the only harbour upon the north coaſt, which ſeems the moſt fertile.

POLYNESIA.

THE boundaries of this extenſive diviſion of the globe have already been briefly mentioned in the introduction to the Aſiatic Iſlands. A line paſſing due north, in the meridian of 130° eaſt from Greenwich, will leave the Philippine Iſlands in the oriental archipelago, divided by a wide ſea from the Pelew Iſles, the moſt weſtern group of Polyneſia, though a few ſmall detached iſles appear to the S. W. About 20° N. lat. the line of demarcation bends N. E. ſo as to include the iſle of *Todos los Santos*, and that called *Rica de Plata*, thence proceeding E. ſo as to include the Sandwich Iſlands, and paſs S. about long. 122° weſt, till it reach the ſouthern latitude of 50°, where it turns to the weſt, and joins the boundary of Auſtralaſia.

It is probable that future navigations may greatly improve and enlarge the geography of Polyneſia, by the diſcovery of new groups, and the more accurate arrangement of thoſe already known. At preſent the following appear to be the chief ſubdiviſions:

1. The Pelew Iſles.
2. The Ladrones, a chain extending in a northerly direction, the ſmall iſlands in the Pacific ſeeming to be moſtly the ſummits of ranges or groups of mountains.
3. The Carolines, a long range from E. to W., ſo as perhaps, in ſtrictneſs, to include the Pelews.
4. The Sandwich Iſles.
5. The Marqueſas.
6. The Society Iſles, ſo named in honour of the Royal Society.
7. The Friendly Iſles.

There

There are beſides many iſles ſcattered in different directions, which would be difficult to connect with any group, and indeed none of them, yet diſcovered, appears to be of any conſequence.

I. The Pelew Isles.

This group recently attracted conſiderable attention, from an ingenious and pleaſing account of them, drawn up by Mr. Keate, from the papers of Captain Wilſon, who ſuffered ſhipwreck on theſe iſlands in 1783. The narrative is doubtleſs heightened by Mr. Keate's imagination, but the people appear to be a moſt gentle and amiable race, the gay and innocent children of nature. It is a peculiarity, which has been remarked in deſcribing the oriental archipelago, that the ſmall iſles are the chief ſeats of comparative civilization, by the concentration of ſociety. To this circumſtance may be added, that in large iſlands the natives ſplit into diſtinct tribes, generally hoſtile to each other, whence the pleaſurable paſſions almoſt expire in the conſtant ſucceſſion of fear and rage, while in the ſmall iſlands, there being no room for ſeceſſion, the ſociety becomes as it were one family. Much will doubtleſs depend upon the propenſities of the native race, and even on the character and manners of the firſt ſettlers and their immediate deſcendants, but, except on the above principles, it might perhaps be difficult to account for the contraſt of manners between the people of the Pelews and thoſe of New Zealand, who are probably of one original ſtem.*

The Pelewans are a ſtout well made people, rather above the middle ſtature. Their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is un-

* Dr. Forſter thinks, Obſ. 358, that the original people of Auſtralaſia and Polyneſia was the negro breed found in Papua, New Holland, &c., for even in Otaheite the common people are much darker than the chiefs, and perhaps of a mingled race. According to that author the Malays of Malacca gradually ſpread to Borneo, the Philippines, the Ladrones, and Carolines: thence to the Friendly Iſlands and New Zealand, the Society Iſlands, the Marqueſas, and as far eaſt as Eaſter Iſland. To Papua, New Caledonia, and the New Hebudes, the Malays did not bend their progreſs, nor to New Holland, ſo that theſe laſt countries remain in the poſſeſſion of the primitive race. In the large iſlands, as Borneo, Luzon, &c. the negroes retired to the interior mountains, being called Biajos, Negrillos, Zambales, Harfuris, &c.; but in the leſſer iſles they were conquered, and became *Toutous*.

derſtood by the copper hue, but not black, and their hair is long and flowing,[1] The men are entirely naked, while the women only wear two little aprons, or rather fringes, made of the huſk of the cocoa nut. Both ſexes are tatooed, and the teeth are dyed black. Polygamy is allowed, and the dead are interred. There ſeems no appearance of religion of any kind, though they have an idea that the ſoul ſurvives the body. Mild, affable, and induſtrious, this little tribe, like the inhabitants of Otaheite, form an exception to the general rule of ſavage exiſtence. Mr. Keate has publiſhed a vocabulary of the language, which is probably a dialect of the Malay, ſo widely diffuſed through theſe ſeas. PELEWS.

The government is in the hands of a king, under whom there are *rupaks*, or chiefs, who alſo conſtitute a kind of nobles. The property of all the land is ſuppoſed to be veſted in the ſovereign ; while that of the people is only perſonal, as a canoe, weapons, or rude articles of furniture. Our domeſtic poultry are here wild in the woods, and were neglected by the natives, till taught by the Engliſh that they were proper for food. Their chief nouriſhment appears to be fiſh ; but they made a kind of ſweetmeats from the ſugar cane, which ſeems indigenous. The chief drink was the milk of the cocoa nut. They commonly riſe at daylight, and immediately go to bath in freſh water. Their houſes are raiſed on large ſtones, about three feet from the ground, being conſtructed of planks and bamboos, and the fire-place in the middle, ſecured with hard rubbiſh. There are large manſions for public meetings. The beſt knives are of mother of pearl, others of a large muſcle ſhell, or ſplit bamboo. They make oval veſſels of coarſe earthern ware. In general their articles reſemble thoſe of Otaheite, and other iſles in the South Sea. The weapons are ſpears, darts, and ſlings: and the canoes are formed of the trunk of a tree, neatly ornamented.

Theſe iſles had ſcarcely been viſited by any European till Captain Wilſon landed at Oloolong. Mr. Keate's account is rather romantic than exact, for it appears that Abba Thulle was king of the iſle called Coorooraa, and the Engliſh called the capital, or reſidence of the king, Pelew. Theſe iſlands are in general of a moderate height, well covered with wood ; and are circled on the weſt ſide by a reef of coral, from

[1] Keate, 318.

two

Pelews. two to ſix leagues from the ſhore, and of great length. The ebony tree is found in the foreſts, and the bread fruit and cocoa tree ſeem to abound, with ſugar canes and bamboos. No kind of grain was ſeen, nor any quadrupeds, except ſome rats in the woods, and three or four cats in the houſes, probably drifted aſhore from ſome wreck. Of birds, pigeons ſeem the moſt numerous: and the wild poultry have been already mentioned.

II. The Ladrones.

First Diſcovery. This appellation implies the Iſles of Robbers, and was given by that diſtinguiſhed navigator Magalhaens, who firſt diſcovered theſe iſlands in 1521, the natives ſhewing great diſpoſitions to pilfer, and much addreſs in the execution of their deſigns. Pigafetta, who accompanied Magalhaens, deſcribes the people as naked, their hair and beards long, tall and well proportioned, with an olive complexion. They coloured their teeth black like the Pelewans; and there ſeems to be an intimate correſpondence in their other manners and cuſtoms. Their canoes had outriggers, and a rude delineation of one has been publiſhed from Pigafetta's manuſcript.*

According to the jeſuit Gobien, who has publiſhed a particular hiſtory of the Ladrones, or Marian Iſlands,[2] the inhabitants, till the arrival of the Spaniards, regarded themſelves as the only men in the world, being aſſured that the firſt man was made of a piece of rock taken from Funa, a little iſland near Guam; but, according to others, he was made of earth in the latter iſland. When they were viſited by the Spaniards and Dutch, they inferred that theſe ſtrangers were brethren, who had loſt the primitive Guameſe language. In colour, ſpeech, manners, and government, they conſiderably reſemble the Tagals or people of the Philippines, before the Spaniſh conqueſt. Theſe iſles were then very populous, Guam, in forty leagues of circuit, having thirty thouſand inhabitants. A favourite occupation of the women was to dye their teeth black, and their hair white; but let not Europeans ſmile, for we have

* See alſo the Supplement of De Broſſes, ii. 492, for an ample account of the Ladrones.

[2] Paris, 1700. 12mo.

many ſimilar abſurdities. The nobles diſplayed a ſingular pride, being addreſſed with great reſpect, and it was a crime for a noble to marry a common girl. Yet the people were not enſlaved, or even ſubject, but revered their nobles without any conſequent idea of obedience. The houſes were divided into four apartments, by partitions of palm leaves. In their abſolute independance each man avenged his own quarrel; and wars were frequent, but not ſanguinary, as the loſs of one or two men decided the battle. Their magicians invoke the *Anitis*, or the Dead, whoſe ſkulls were preſerved in the houſe, and they are anxious leſt an aniti or ghoſt ſhould diſturb their fiſhing or nocturnal repoſe. Ladrones.

In the reign of Philip IV of Spain theſe iſles were alſo called the Marians, in honour of his queen, Mary of Auſtria. The largeſt is that of Guam, but Tinian has attracted more attention, from the romantic deſcription in Anſon's voyage. There is no doubt that mariners who have been long at ſea, and ſuffered many diſeaſes and privations, will be infinitely delighted with any verdant land, and find beauties where none exiſt. Hence ſubſequent navigators have been greatly diſappointed in Tinian. Anſon found here abundance of wild cattle, of a white colour, except the ears, which are generally black or brown. But they had probably been imported by the Spaniards, as a ſupply for the garriſon at Guam. Here were alſo found oranges, limes, and cocoa nuts, with that celebrated and remarkable tree which bears the bread fruit. Tinian.

The Ladrones are computed to be twelve or fourteen in number; but not above three or four are inhabited. Their veſſels, called flying proas, have been eſteemed ſingular ſpecimens of naval architecture, and at a diſtant interval impreſſed Pigafetta and Anſon with the ingenuity of the contrivance. The natural hiſtory of theſe iſlands is little known. It appears from the voyage of La Perouſe that ſome of them are volcanic.

To the N. of the Ladrones are many ſmall iſlands, extending to Todos Los Santos, lat. 30°, thoſe further to the N. belonging to Japan. This group may either be arranged among the Ladrones, or might perhaps admit of a diſtinct appellation.

The Golden and Silver Iſles ſeem to be ſo ſtyled from Japaneſe fables, and with a few other ſcattered iſles on the N. of the Carolines,

Ladrones. merit little attention. In theſe ſeas is the ſtupendous rock called Lot's Wife, riſing in the form of a pyramid, and thus deſcribed by Mr. Meares in his voyage. "The latitude was 29° 50′ north, the longitude 142° 23′ eaſt of Greenwich, The waves broke againſt its rugged front, with a fury proportioned to the immenſe diſtance they had to roll before they were interrupted by it. It roſe almoſt perpendicular to the height of near three hundred and fifty feet. A ſmall black rock appeared juſt above the water, at about forty or fifty yards from the weſtern edge. There was a cavern on its ſouth eaſtern ſide, into which the waters rolled with an awful and tremendous noiſe. In regarding this ſtupendous rock, which ſtood alone in an immenſe ocean, we could not but conſider it as an object which had been able to reſiſt one of thoſe great convulſions of nature that change the very form of thoſe parts of the globe which they are permitted to deſolate."

III. The Carolines.

First Diſcovery. This is the largeſt group, or rather the moſt extenſive range of iſlands in the Pacific Ocean.* This chain appears to have been firſt diſcovered by the Spaniards in 1686, and was named from the Spaniſh monarch Charles II. They are about thirty in number, and very populous, except three which were uninhabited. The natives reſemble thoſe of the Philippines, and chiefly live upon fiſh and cocoa nuts: and it is probable that their language only differs in a few ſhades. According to the letters of the jeſuits each iſle was ſubject to its chief, but all reſpected a monarch, who reſided at Lamurec.

They believe in certain celeſtial ſpirits, and think they deſcend to bathe in a ſacred lake in Fallalo, but there are neither temples nor idols, nor any appearance of worſhip. The dead are ſometimes thrown into the ſea, and at others interred, the grave being ſurrounded with a ſtone

* De Broſſes ſlightly mentions, vol. ii. p. 58, the New Philippines, a vague and improper name of the Carolines. But ſee his Supplement, ii. 443, &c. for a deſcription of the Carolines and Pelew Iſlands, accompanied with a curious map by Vaugondy.

wall. It is ſaid that thoſe of Yap worſhip a kind of crocodile, and have their magicians. Polygamy is allowed, and the Tamul or chief of the large iſle of Hogoleu had nine wives. Criminals are baniſhed from one iſle to another.[3] Carolines.

They do not appear to have any inſtruments of muſic, but their dances are accompanied with ſongs. Their only weapons are lances, armed with bone. Even in this diſtant quarter of the globe negro ſlaves are not unknown: and in one or two of the iſlands the breed is ſaid to be mingled, twenty-nine Spaniards having been left on one of theſe iſlands, who are ſuppoſed to have married and ſettled. The people of Ulea are reported to be more civilized than the reſt, and appear much to reſemble thoſe of the Pelews. In 1733 Cantova, a jeſuit miſſionary, was maſſacred with eight Spaniards in the iſle of Mogmog.

The moſt conſiderable of the Carolines is Hogoleu, about 90 B. miles in length by 40 in breadth. Next is Yap, in the weſtern extremity of this chain, but not above a third part of that ſize. The Caroline iſlands have been little viſited by recent navigators; but a few ſmall groups have been diſcovered in their eaſtern extremities, which may properly be claſſed in the ſame range.

IV. The Sandwich Isles.

Theſe iſlands appear to have been firſt diſcovered by our great navigator Cook, being perhaps the only detached object in which he was not foreſtalled by preceding navigators; but the preciſion and truth of his narratives concerning other regions before only faintly deſcribed, and the diſcoveries of particular features and poſitions, juſtly entitle Cook to the veneration which his memory has received from all European nations. The people of the Sandwich Iſlands are of a deep olive complexion, muſcular, and well proportioned; and the productions differ little from thoſe of Otaheite, being little further to the north of the equator than the Society Iſlands are to the ſouth. There is one conſiderable iſland about 280 B. First Diſcovery.

[3] De Broſſes, ib. 486.

Sandwich Isles.

miles in circumference, called Owhyhee, where Captain Cook was moſt unfortunately ſlain by the natives, February 1779. The beſt eulogy of this great man will be found diſperſed through this and other ſyſtems of modern geography, which from him derive a great acceſſion of knowledge.

Name impoſed.

Theſe iſlands were ſo named by Cook in gratitude to the earl of Sandwich, a miniſter who had warmly promoted his labours. The

Inhabitants.

natives are rather of a darker complexion than thoſe of Otaheite, but the features are pleaſing; and the death of Cook was not owing to ferocity, but a ſudden impulſe of undeſerved reſentment. The hair is ſometimes long, ſometimes curled, as among Europeans: but the noſe is always ſpread at the point, perhaps owing to the mode of ſalutation, in which they preſs their noſes together. Captain King repreſents them as a mild and affectionate people, free from the Otaheitan levity, and

Manners and Cuſtoms.

the proud gravity of thoſe of the Friendly Iſles. This ingenious people has even made ſome progreſs in agriculture and manufactures; yet they ſtill ſacrifice human victims, but do not eat them like the people of New Zealand, at leaſt ſo far as information could be obtained. The beard is generally worn; and among the ornaments of both ſexes is a kind of fan to drive away flies, made of the fibres of the cocoa nut, or of long feathers. Like the other nations of Polyneſia, they tatoo their bodies; and among females even the tip of the tongue, becauſe they can thus ſhew an ornament without elocution. The dreſs conſiſts of a narrow piece of coarſe cloth called the *maro*, prepared in the ſame manner as at Otaheite, which paſſes between the legs and is faſtened round the loins. In battle the men throw a kind of mats over their ſhoulders, and this armour is neatly manufactured. On ſolemn occaſions the chiefs wear dreſſes, artfully and beautifully formed of feathers. The women have only a ſlight wrapper, and the hair is cut ſhort behind, but turned up from their forehead. The food conſiſts chiefly of fiſh, to which are added yams, plantains, and ſugar canes; while people of rank feaſt on

Form of government.

the wild boar, and ſometimes the fleſh of dogs. The government is in a ſupreme chief called Eree Taboo, whoſe funeral is accompanied by the ſacrifice of two or more ſervants. The inferior chiefs are ſtyled Erees; and there is a ſecond claſs of proprietors, and a third of laboureſ,

bourers, all theſe ranks ſeeming to be hereditary. Though human ſacrifices be here more frequent, the other rites appear to correſpond with thoſe of the Society Iſlands, which ſhall be deſcribed in the account of Otaheite. SANDWICH ISLES.

The climate appears to be more temperate than that of the Weſt Indies; and in Owhyhee the mountains arreſt the clouds, and produce rain inland, while there is ſunſhine on the ſhore. The winds ſeem generally eaſterly, and there is a regular land and ſea breeze. Climate.

The quadrupeds, as uſual in Polyneſia, are few; only hogs, dogs, and rats, being diſcovered. The kinds of birds are not numerous, being, among others, large white pigeons, plovers, owls, and a kind of raven. Theſe iſlands produce abundance of the bread fruit, and ſugar canes of amazing ſize. Upon the whole this diſcovery was important; and Owhyhee is the largeſt iſland yet found in the wide extent of Polyneſia. Zoology.

After leaving Eaſter Iſland the unfortunate La Perouſe viſited the Sandwich Iſlands, which he ſeems to ſuppoſe are the ſame with the Meſa of Spaniſh charts; though, from an error, in not obſerving the currents, they be placed ſixteen or ſeventeen degrees more to the eaſt, an uſual fault in the Spaniſh charts, which thus bring many Polyneſian iſlands far too near the American ſhores: but the French navigator ſubjoins an honourable teſtimony in favour of Cook. "Full of reſpect and admiration for the memory of that great man, he will always appear to me the greateſt of navigators." Still New Caledonia, and what is called Sandwich Land in the antarctic ocean, ſeem acknowledged new diſcoveries of our great navigator.

La Perouſe viſited the iſle of Mowee, to the N. of Owhyhee, and obſerved the mountains, the woods, the caſcades; and the habitations of the natives, ſo numerous, that a ſpace of three or four leagues might be ſuppoſed a ſingle village. They brought hogs and fruits; and their canoes had outriggers. La Perouſe confirms the account of their mild and beneficent manners; and in general refers to the Engliſh narratives, the exactneſs of which he greatly applauds.

V. THE

V. The Marquesas.

First Discovery.

These islands were discovered by Mendana, who imposed the name in honour of Don Garcia de Mendoza, marquis of Caniente, viceroy of Peru, whence they are also sometimes styled the Isles of Mendoza. From the account of Mendana's discovery it appears that the people of the Marquesas were an elegant race, the women being remarkably beautiful, with tolerably fair complexions, so as to exceed in personal appearance the finest women of Lima.[4] They were cloathed, from the breast downwards, with a fine piece of bark cloth. They had idols of wood: and their canoes sometimes held from thirty to forty mariners. The temperature of the air was so dry as not in the least to moisten linen left on the ground during the night. The blanc-mange of Mendana is probably the bread fruit. The names given to the several islands, by the first discoverer, have since yielded to the native appellations. One of the best known to Europeans is the isle of Ohittahoo, to the S. of the larger isle Ohevahoa.

Subsequent Discoveries.

In 1774 the Marquesas were visited by Captain Cook, and in 1789 by the French circumnavigator Marchand, whose idle voyage has been recently published at Paris with so much pomp and compilation. Marchand however observed some isles to the N. W. of this group, afterwards descried in 1791 by an American Captain called Ingraham, which are inhabited, but are not laid down in Arrowsmith's chart of the Pacific, nor probably in any other which has yet appeared. If the longitudes and latitudes published by Ingraham be tolerably exact, these islands may be regarded as belonging to the group of Marquesas.* The best recent account of the latter is that given in the Missionary Voyage, Captain Wilson having visited the Marquesas in 1797.

[4] De Brosses, i 251.

* Mr. Arrowsmith supposes them the Marquesas. The central south latitude of 9° and long. 141° from London would place them to the west of the Marquesas, whence the distance is said to be thirty-five leagues, and the largest isle about ten leagues in circuit. Other discoveries may probably take place near the equator, from long. 160° to 175°.

The

The natives are ſaid to ſurpaſs all other nations in ſymmetry of ſhape, and regularity of features; and were it not for the practice of tatooing, which blackens the body by numerous punctures, the complexion would be only tawny, while the hair is of many colours, but none red. Some of the women are nearly as fair as Europeans, and among them tatooing is not ſo univerſal.[5] The ſiſter of the chieftain had ſome parallel lines on her arms; while others had only ſlight punctures on the inſide of their lips, and even upon their eyelids. A long narrow piece of cloth was wrapt round the waiſt, the ends being tucked up between the thighs, while a broad piece of their cloth was thrown over the ſhoulder, reaching half way down the leg. But this dreſs ſeems ceremonious, as may appear from an incident in the ſame amuſing journal. MARQUESAS.

" Our firſt viſitors from the ſhore came early; they were ſeven beautiful young women, ſwimming quite naked, except a few green leaves tied round their middle: they kept playing round the ſhip for three hours, calling Waheine! (that is women,) until ſeveral of the native men had got on board; one of whom, being the chief of the iſland, requeſted that his ſiſter might be taken on board, which was complied with: ſhe was of a fair complexion, inclining to a healthy yellow, with a tint of red in her cheek; was rather ſtout, but poſſeſſing ſuch ſymmetry of features, as did all her companions, that, as models for the ſtatuary and painter, their equals can ſeldom be found. Our Otaheitan girl, who was tolerably fair and had a comely perſon, was notwithſtanding greatly eclipſed by theſe women, and I believe felt her inferiority in no ſmall degree; however ſhe was ſuperior in the amiableneſs of her manners, and poſſeſſed more of the ſoftneſs and tender feeling of the ſex: ſhe was aſhamed to ſee a woman upon the deck quite naked, and ſupplied her with a complete dreſs of new Otaheitan cloth, which ſet her off to great advantage, and encouraged thoſe in the water, whoſe numbers were now greatly increaſed, to importune for admiſſion; and out of pity to them, as we ſaw they would not return, we took them on board; but they were in a meaſure diſappointed, for they could not

[5] Miſſionary voyage, London, 1799. 4to. p. 145.

all

Marquesas. all ſucceed ſo well as the firſt in getting clothed; nor did our miſchievous goats even ſuffer them to keep their green leaves, but as they turned to avoid them, they were attacked on each ſide alternately, and completely ſtripped naked."

The religious ceremonies reſemble thoſe of Otaheite; and they have a Morai in each diſtrict, where the dead are buried under a pavement of large ſtones. Their deities are numerous, and the chiefs ſeem to have little power, cuſtom alone being followed, inſtead of laws. Like moſt uncivilized nations they have no regular meals, but eat five or ſix times a day, or oftener. The women ſeem more ſubjected to the men, than at Otaheite. Polygamy is chiefly practiſed by the chiefs. The fore-ſkin is ſlit before the age of puberty. The canoes are made of wood, and the bark of a ſoft tree, being commonly from ſixteen to twenty feet in length, the prow carved in rude reſemblance of a human face.

No quadrupeds were diſcovered except hogs, but there are tame poultry; and the woods are filled with many beautiful birds. In one of theſe iſles an Engliſh miſſionary was left, in the benevolent intention of diſcouraging mutual ſlaughter, and human ſacrifices. But if the chriſtian doctrine of monygamy be ſtrictly enforced, it is improbable that the other doctrines will be received; and we are taught, by many examples, that mahometaniſm is more ſucceſsful in the oriental regions.

The largeſt iſle of the Marqueſas, Noabeva, is not above half the ſize of Otaheite: and in general the multitude of ſmall iſlands in theſe ſeas preſents a wonderful variety in the works of nature, the largeſt iſland yet diſcovered in Polyneſia being Owhyhee, which is about 100 B. miles in length.

VI. The Society Isles.

This group has attracted more attention than any other in Polyneſia, and our admiration of Otaheite has excited ſome degree of ridicule on the continent. The unfortunate La Perouſe obſerves, in one of his

letters, "I flatter myſelf you will ſee with pleaſure that, in the courſe of ſo long a voyage, I ſhall have no occaſion to put in at thoſe everlaſting Society Iſlands, about which more has been written than concerning ſeveral kingdoms of Europe; and I confeſs to you that I congratulate myſelf on having nothing to ſay either about Otaheite, or Queen Oberea."[5] But it may be ſaid, in perfect candour, that this accompliſhed ſeaman ſhews ſome little jealouſy of the Engliſh diſcoverers; and is led to prefer the French group called the Iſlands of Navigators, which perhaps, in ſize and population exceed the Society Iſlands. Society Isles.

In ſuch a wide expanſe of ocean it ſeems preferable to impart the ſame appellation to very extenſive groups, of which there is a ſufficient and allowed inſtance in the Carolines. All the iſlands therefore from long. 160° weſt from Greenwich, to the eaſtern extremity of Polyneſia, may be included under the general name of Society Iſlands. Some may probably include in Polyneſia the detached and remarkable ſpot called Eaſter Iſland, which ſeems to be peopled by the ſame race, if intervening iſles do not rather connect it with South America. But this iſle ſhall be briefly deſcribed at the end of the preſent article.

The range of Society Iſlands may thus even exceed the Carolines in number, amounting to ſixty or ſeventy. Of theſe Otaheite is ſtill by far the moſt conſiderable in ſize, being about 120 miles in circumference. It conſiſts of two peninſulas, joined by a neck of land, about three miles in breadth, the ſmalleſt peninſula to the S. E. being about fifteen miles in length, by ten in breadth, while the large peninſula to the N. W. is almoſt circular, and about twenty-five miles in diameter: the whole length being thus about forty g. miles, or forty-ſix Britiſh. From the map drawn by Captain Cook, and republiſhed with ſome improvements in the Miſſionary Voyage, this iſland appears to conſiſt of two mountains, a larger and a ſmaller, joined by the narrow ridge abovementioned; and the habitations are entirely confined to the level coaſts. This circumſtance ſeems univerſal in Polyneſia, as the natives crowd to the ſhores for fiſh, their chief aliment; and it is probable that the original colonies having ſettled on the coaſts, indolence has prevented them from viſiting the inland heights. Nor is it improbable that even Otaheite.

[5] Voyage, iii. 364.

Society Isles.

in the large countries of Auſtralaſia* a ſimilar ſingularity may be obſerved, the ſcarcity of animal food probably compelling the natives chiefly to reſide on the ſhores.

Near the central ſummit of the large mountain of Otaheite, which in circumference though not in height, reſembles Etna, there is a curious lake of ſome extent: but no river appears, there being only rivulets, which ſpring from the ſkirts, and purſue a brief courſe of two or three miles to the ocean.

Inhabitants.

The natural colour of the inhabitants is olive, inclining to copper. Men expoſed to the ſun become very dark; but the women are only a ſhade or two deeper than an European brunette. They have fine black eyes, with white even teeth, ſoft ſkin, and elegant limbs; while their hair is of a jetty black, perfumed and ornamented with flowers.[7] But with all theſe advantages they yield infinitely in beauty to the women of the Marqueſas, the face being widened from continual preſſure from infancy, which by diſtending the mouth, and flattening the noſe and forehead, gives a broad maſculine appearance. Hence it is evident that the Grecian and academical forms, given by artiſts void of real taſte or preciſion, to the people of the South ſeas, in the prints that accompany the Engliſh and French voyages, are totally falſe and imaginary. Nor can there be a greater injury to books of genuine character, and ſolid information, than this practice, which renders the modern prints far inferior in every reſpect to ſome excellent ancient repreſentations of De Bry.

But while the women thus ſedulouſly endeavour to deſtroy their natural beauty, they are of the moſt affable and engaging manners; and ſeem entire ſtrangers to thoſe unaccountable caprices, ſudden frowns, and violences of temper, which form the chief domeſtic peſtilence of civilized ſociety. Always generous and good humoured, they are ſlow

* In the chart which accompanies the Miſſionary voyage Polyneſia is abſurdly called Leſſer *Auſtralia*, as if it were wholly to the ſouth of the equator, or even approached the Terra Auſtralis of exploded maps. Auſtralaſia is named Greater *Auſtralia*, while the latter word only means *Southern things*, and cannot with any degree of grammar be applied to a region. Cicero, in his dream of Scipio, uſes *Auſtralis regio* merely for a ſouthern country: but the plural neuter of the adjective cannot be uſed as an appellation.

[7] Miſſ. Voyage, 327.

to

to take offence, and eaſily pacified, never entertaining the ſentiments of long and ſlow revenge, of which the ſex ſeems, in many countries, far more capable than the men. As uſual in warm climates their beauty not only ripens, but decays, ſooner than in more northern regions. The chiefs are taller than the people, few being under ſix feet; and as perſonal ſize and ſtrength are the chief diſtinctions in early ſociety, it is probable that their anceſtors were ſelected for theſe advantages, which have been continued by ſuperior food and eaſe. The dreſs of both ſexes is nearly the ſame, except that the men wear the *Maro*, a narrow piece of cloth wrapped round the waiſt, and paſſing between the thighs. An oblong piece, cut in the middle to admit the head, hangs down before and behind; and another piece is wrapt round the middle, and a ſquare mantle is thrown over all. Both ſexes wear garlands of flowers and feathers; and the women uſe a kind of bonnet made of cocoa leaves. Parturition is eaſy; and the infant can ſwim as ſoon as it can walk. Society Isles.

Their voice and ſpeech are ſoft and harmonious; and their dialect is the Italian of the Pacific ocean. Their rude manufactures are truly wonderful, and evince the greateſt ingenuity. Their dwellings are about eighteen feet in length, with a few articles of furniture, ſuch as trays, baſkets, mats, and a large cheſt. According to the miſſionary accounts there is no public appearance of immodeſty; and they impute their noted exhibitions to the bribes of their Engliſh viſitors.

Their deities are numerous; each family having its Tee, or guardian ſpirit, whom they worſhip at the Morai; but they have a great god, or gods of a ſuperior order, ſtyled Fwhanow Po, or the progeny of night. The divinities in general are ſtyled the Eatooa. The chief ſeems to be Tane, who has a wife Taroa: from them ſpring Po the night, Mahanna the ſun, &c. Man alſo proceeds from a divine origin, as in the Japaneſe mythology, their ſole idea of creation being procreation. Theſe benevolent people cannot conceive a future puniſhment; and regard the idea as only the utmoſt effort of human malignity. But they admit the immortality of the ſoul, and degrees of future eminence and happineſs, proportioned to its virtue and piety. They have a high idea of the power of ſpirits, and believe that the beautiful peak near the harbour of Religion.

Taloo

Society Isles. Taloo in Eimeo, was dropped by them in its romantic ſituation. The Tahouras, or prieſts, are numerous, and have great power; but all the chiefs officiate on certain occaſions. The human victims are commonly criminals, and are killed during ſleep; a curious inſtance of ferocious ſuperſtition, mingled with mildneſs of character. The women are not admitted to the Morais, far leſs ſacrificed as at the Friendly Iſles. For a more ample account of their manners and cuſtoms the reader is referred to the Voyage of the Miſſionaries;* which, from longer opportunities of obſervation, affords the moſt ample and authentic intelligence. From the general view of their manners, it will not appear wonderful that this enchanted region excited great attention, not only in England, but throughout Europe; as every boſom felt that here were freedom, and eaſe, and happineſs, which the artifices of ſome, and the ſuperſtition of others, have ſo much contributed to baniſh from civilized ſociety, where life itſelf has become a ceremony. Yet the numerous inteſtine wars, of one little iſle againſt another, render even this ſtate of uncivilized life little deſirable.

Zoology. The chief animals are hogs, as uſual in all the iſles of Polyneſia, and they have alſo dogs and poultry. The bread fruit tree abounds; and large plantations are made of cocoa trees and plantains. The ſeas ſwarm with fiſh, and in catching them great ingenuity is diſplayed, the canoes having outriggers, or being doubled, by laſhing two together.

Though the people of the Friendly Iſlands be ſuperior in improvements and government; and the women of the Marqueſas far ſuperior in beauty; yet the people of Otaheite are ſo polite and affable, and their manners ſo engaging, that joined with the romantic beauty of the country, the numerous ſtreams, and the ſuperabundance of ſpontaneous productions, this iſland is ſtill preferred to all others in Polyneſia, and thoſe of the Navigators muſt be further explored before any compariſon can be inſtituted.

It has already been mentioned that this iſland conſiſts as it were of two mountains. Theſe are encircled by a border of low land, from the beach to the riſing of the hills, in ſome places near a mile in breadth,

* Some were left in Otaheite, but their endeavours do not appear to have been crowned with ſucceſs, and moſt of them have ſince returned to the ſettlement at Port Jackſon.

while

while in others the rocks impend over the ſea. The ſoil of the low lands, and of the vales which interſect the ridge towards the ocean, is remarkably fertile, conſiſting of a rich blackiſh mould. When the trade wind gets far to the ſouth it rains on that ſide of the iſland; but on the north the ſhowers are leſs frequent and violent. In the latter the harveſt of bread fruit begins about November, and continues till the end of January: while in the ſouthern part it often begins in January and continues till November: but there are variations from the nature of the tree, the number of ſpecies being about thirty. On aſcending the hills, the ſoil changes from a rich loam into veins of clay, or marl, of various colours. Beneath is a ſoft ſandſtone, of a browniſh colour; and baſalt alſo abounds, of a fine grain, of which they uſed to make their tools. The ſingular cliff called Peeha appears to be baſaltic.* The black volcanic glaſs, called obſidian, is ſaid to be found in the rivers, and alſo pumices, ſure indications that a volcano once exiſted: but that any country, or iſland, is of a volcanic origin may perhaps be ſafely doubted, as only little rude rocks, or iſles of a moſt diminutive ſize, have been thus erected within human record. The large freſh water lake above-mentioned may perhaps have been the crater of the volcano. This lake is ſaid to be fathomleſs; but its ſhores are well peopled by an induſtrious race. The chief harbour of Otaheite appears to be Matavai, on the north ſide of the iſland; but there is another of ſimilar note in the S. E., called Langaras.

The next iſland in regard to ſize is Ulitea: and the others of this group, even taken in its utmoſt extent, are of far inferior dimenſions to Otaheite; nor has any ſtriking ſingularity yet been obſerved which might claim attention in a general deſcription. In Ulitea ſome difference was remarked in the mode of conſtructing the Morais, here compoſed of four walls built of coral rock. The natives of the numerous iſlets to the E. are ſaid to be more ferocious than thoſe of the iſles viſited by Cook.

* Forſter, Obſ. 21, ſays that the Society iſles are encircled with reefs of coral, the lower hills are of red ochrous earth, the higher of a kind of argillaceous rock, with coarſe granite, or the ſaxum of Linnæus Black and grey baſalt is alſo found, and it is ſaid cryſtals of native ſulphur. Several of the rocks are full of ſchorl, and there is lamellated iron ſtone of a reddiſh brown. The Friendly iſles are ſimilar.

As

Society Isles. Easter Island.

As an appendage to this article ſome account may be added of Eaſter Iſland, a detached and remote region, which however, ſo far as the diſcoveries yet extend, ſeems rather to belong to Polyneſia, than to South America. This iſle appears to have been firſt ſeen by Davis in 1686; and was afterwards viſited by Cook and La Perouſe. It is of a triangular form, the longeſt ſide being about twenty-five miles in length, and at one extremity there appears to have been a volcano. The buildings and rude coloſſal images, here found, impreſſed Dr. Forſter with the idea that Eaſter Iſland had once been held by a people more advanced in ſociety than the preſent inhabitants; but this opinion appears to be overturned by the obſervations and prints in the voyage of La Perouſe. The abundance of looſe ſtones ſeems to have led the natives to uſe them in conſtructing their cottages; and the door is ſo low that it will only admit a perſon creeping on hands and knees. The hut is often connected with a cave, or cellar, in which theſe iſlanders depoſit their food, tools, and little property, the height being little more than five feet. The wall of that ſide of the cottage, which is moſt expoſed to the wind, is conſiderably higher than the reſt, to protect the roof, which ſerves as a terrace. There are alſo long edifices conſtructed of wood. The Morais, or burial places, are of a more remarkable ſtructure; being a kind of platform, in which are fixed ſhapeleſs and uncouth maſſes, rudely carved in imitation of buſts, ſometimes about fifteen feet in height, and the face five feet. In theſe a red lava, very porous and light,* is chiefly employed; and the French engineer obſerves that any difficulty in the erection is eaſily ſolved, for "by the aſſiſtance of arms, cords, two levers, and three wooden rollers, it is eaſy to tranſport and raiſe the moſt enormous maſſes." In fact there appears no more art than is exerted in the rude carvings found throughout the iſles of Polyneſia. There is ſcarcely a tall tree in Eaſter Iſle, nor any brook, the water being retained in cavities made in the rocks; but the natives are very induſtrious, and plant paper-mulberries, and bananas, with regular fields of potatoes and yams. They have the ſame language and features with the other natives of Polyneſia; but as, upon a ſcientific

* Perhaps coral rock, for with the French every thing is lava. Yet according to Dr. Forſter, Obſ. 19, there are many volcanic appearances in Eaſter Iſland, particularly obſidian.

 compariſon,

compariſon, it may perhaps be diſcovered that the extinct empire of Peru was in great part peopled by a ſimilar race, this argument will not of itſelf include Eaſter Iſle in that diviſion.* Society Isles.

VII. The Friendly Isles.

This group extends chiefly from S. W. to N. E. including the Feejee iſles, thoſe called the Iſles of Navigators, and ſeveral detached iſles in a more northerly poſition. The name was impoſed by Captain Cook, in teſtimony of the diſpoſition of the people; but they had been diſcovered by Taſman in 1643, who called the chief iſle, now ſtyled by the native term Tongataboo, by the name of Amſterdam.[8] His account of the manners of the people correſponds with the more recent and preciſe information given by Captain Cook, and other late navigators. They are contraſted with thoſe of Otaheite, as being of a more grave and regular behaviour; and the power of the chiefs is more deſpotic. A greater ſecurity of property has alſo ſuperinduced more ingenuity and induſtry: but in general the manners and cuſtoms approach ſo nearly, that a further account might appear repetition; and the perſons of the natives are likewiſe ſimilar, though the chiefs ſeem inferior in ſtature.

In the Miſſionary Voyage, 1797, there is an intereſting map of Tongataboo. Tongataboo, which thence appears to be a plain country, in an univerſal and ſurpriſing ſtate of cultivation, the whole iſland conſiſting of incloſures, with reed fences about ſix feet high, interſected with innumerable roads. The whole is ſuch a picture of induſtry, as to form a reproach to nations who call themſelves civilized. The length of Tongataboo is only about ſixteen miles, by about eight at its greateſt breadth. On the north ſide there is a lagoon, with ſeveral iſles, con-

* The iſles of Galapagos, or Tortoiſes, ſeem to be quite uninhabited, and unqueſtionably belong to South America. What are called Low Iſlands belong to the Society group, and are commonly little level patches which only produce cocoa nuts.

The idea that the Peruvians or Mexicans might alſo have been Malays ſeems ſufficiently exploded by the table of languages given by Dr. Forſter, p. 284. See alſo the Peruvian vocabulary in the deſcription of America.

[8] See his deſcription and prints in Dalrymple's Collection, vol. ii. p. 75.

ſtituting

Friendly Isles.

ſtituting a tolerable harbour. The commodities are, as uſual, hogs, bread fruit, cocoa nuts, and yams.

Though the people of the Friendly Iſles be more free from wars than thoſe of the group before deſcribed, yet Tongataboo is often ſtained with human victims; nor do their ideas of property prevent their ſtealing from ſtrangers. Some miſſionaries were here left, who imparted ſome uſeful arts to the natives, but the rats were very deſtructive to the European plants. Theſe, with hogs, dogs, and guanos conſtituted the only quadrupeds, till cats were left in the voyage of 1797. The morais ſeem to be here called fiatookas; and are conſtructed in the form of terraces with high ſteps, the material being coral ſtone.

Feejee Iſles.

To the N. W. are the Feejee iſles, which the Engliſh miſſionaries diſcovered to be now ſubject to Tongataboo. It would ſeem, from Mr. Arrowſmith's elaborate chart of the Pacific, that the principal Feejee iſle, and perhaps ſome of thoſe diſcovered by Captain Bligh, are much ſuperior in ſize to Tongataboo. To the N. of the latter is an iſle, about the ſame ſize, diſcovered by Maurelle in 1781, and by him called Mayorga.

Iſlands of Navigators.

From the accounts of La Perouſe it would appear that the iſles diſcovered by Bougainville in 1768, and by him abſurdly enough called the Islands of Navigators,* are by far the moſt important in this large group. At Maouna, one of theſe iſlands, Captain De Langle, Lamanon the naturaliſt, and nine ſeamen were maſſacred by the inhabitants, the Captain having unadviſedly given beads to a few of the chiefs, while he neglected the others. From the chart of La Perouſe it appears that the largeſt of theſe iſlands, which he calls Pola, is about thirty-ſeven g. miles in length, by about half that breadth, being thus inferior to Otaheite, though far ſurpaſſing Tongataboo. Next in gradual diminution of ſize, and in poſition from W. to E. are Oyolava,

* This name was given becauſe the people had many canoes, and ſhewed great ſkill in navigating them—circumſtances common throughout Polyneſia, and not to be admitted in a diſtinctive appellation.

Maouna, and Opoun.* If the accounts of La Perouſe be not greatly exaggerated, the Iſlands of Navigators conſtitute the moſt important group yet diſcovered in ſouthern Polyneſia, in regard to fertility and population. At Maouna the frigates were ſurrounded with two hundred canoes, full of different kinds of proviſion, fowls, hogs, pigeons, or fruit. The women were very pretty and licentious; and the men of remarkable ſtature, ſtrength, and ferocity: ſo that they deſpiſed the comparatively diminutive ſize of the French. The villages are delightfully ſituated in the midſt of ſpontaneous orchards, and the huts neatly erected, with rude colonades, and covered with leaves of the cocoa palm. Hogs, dogs, and fowls abounded; with the bread fruit tree, the cocoa nut, the banana, the guava, and the orange. Iron and cloth were deſpiſed, and beads alone acceptable. But La Perouſe, who had left France an ardent diſciple of Rouſſeau, here found that ſavages are very different in practice from what they are in theory, and is forced to exclaim, "I am however a thouſand times more angry with the philoſophers who extol the ſavages than with the ſavages themſelves. The unfortunate Lamanon, whom they maſſacred, told me, the very evening before his death, that the Indians were worthier people than us."[9] But La Perouſe did not know that this fanaticiſm of philoſophy was to occaſion ſuch ſanguinary ſcenes in his native country, where an attempt was made to extinguiſh knowledge and civilization by men who alleged the happineſs of ſavages as a ſufficient apology for their conduct. FRIENDLY ISLES.

According to La Perouſe the iſland of Oyolava is at leaſt equal to Otaheite, in beauty, extent, fertility, and population; and he ſuppoſes that this iſle, with the larger iſle of Pola,† and that of Maouna, contain 400,000 inhabitants.[10] Such is the abundance of proviſions, that at

* In Arrowſmith's chart Pola is called Oteewhy; Oyolava is Oahtooah; Maouna is Tootoo-illah, and Opoun is Toomahlooah. There is no reaſon for preferring theſe unpronounceable names to thoſe of the French, who have a prior right of diſcovery.

[9] iii. 413.

† In La Perouſe's narrative, iii. 106. it is ſaid that Pola is ſomewhat ſmaller than Oyolava, but his chart ſeems to demand the preference.

[10] Ib. 414. So Cook over-rated the people of Otaheite, now aſcertained to be only 16,050. Miſſ. Voy. Forſter, Obſ. 219. ſagely argues that Otaheite contains at leaſt 160,000. In like manner La Perouſe's 400,000 may probably be 40,000. It is probable that there are not above 300,000 ſouls in all Auſtralaſia and Polyneſia.

Friendly Isles.

Maouna 500 hogs, and an immenſe quantity of fruit, were procured in twenty-four hours. The natives of Oyolava are alſo of great ſtature; and here was obſerved the largeſt village in all Polyneſia, ſmoking like a city, while the ſea was covered with canoes Though the people be remarkable for a ferocity of character, ſcarcely to be obſerved in any other part of Polyneſia, they are ſtill induſtrious and ingenious, poliſhing their wooden works very highly, with tools made of baſalt. They have not only the bark cloth, but a kind compoſed of real thread, probably from flax, reſembling that of New Zealand. Their ſpeech was underſtood by a native of the Philippines, being derived from the Malay, a language far more widely ſpread than that of the Greeks or Romans, and diffuſed through all the ſcattered iſles of Polyneſia. La Perouſe proceeds to obſerve that the original inhabitants of the Philippines, New Guinea, &c. were that race of woolly-headed men, ſtill found in the interior of the larger iſlands; and in ſome of the ſmaller the breed ſeems mingled with that of the Malays. In general the latter are remarkable for treachery and ferocity; but human character depends ſo much on ſituation, that, when free from oppreſſion and inteſtine wars, the Malays appear to be an honeſt and beneficent people; and it is to be regretted that enquiries more ſcientific have not been inſtituted, in order to illuſtrate their origin.

The Iſlands of Navigators are covered with fruit trees of various deſcriptions, in which wood pigeons and turtle doves ſwarm, and to tame them is a favourite amuſement of the natives. Among the coral rocks of the ſhore are found many pebbles of baſalt, whence La Perouſe idly concludes that they are of volcanic origin, but this new theory of iſlands is very rarely to be admitted.

In Polyneſia, as in Auſtralaſia, many important diſcoveries and obſervations remain to be made, which will gradually enlarge the bounds of geography, ſo that in time they may, like America, aſpire to be diſtinct portions of the globe, and admit a correſponding extent of deſcription. But in the preſent imperfect ſtate of our knowledge it was deemed ſufficient to indicate their proper arrangement in a deſcription of the earth; for their connections with Aſia are ſo intimate, that if, by the

voice of poſterity, they be rejected as grand and ſeparate diviſions, they muſt ever, while ſcientific geography exiſts, be conſidered as appendages to that quarter of the world. Yet amidſt this uncertainty, the account of theſe extenſive diviſions has been reſtricted to as narrow limits as were compatible with any juſt ideas concerning their ſituation, inhabitants, and productions.

Botany of the Aſiatic Iſles, Auſtralaſia, and Polyneſia.

Botany. The plants which have already been mentioned as characterizing the peninſula of Hindoſtan and India beyond the Ganges, form a very eſſential feature in the botany of thoſe crowded groups that geographers have diſtinguiſhed by the names of the Philippines, the Moluccas, and the iſles of Sunda, and which, on this account, may be regarded as forming a large and important appendix to the Indian continent. Situated as they are directly under the equator, and extending to the diſtance of about ten degrees north and ſouth on each ſide of it, every thing that can be produced in vegetation by the combined influence of heat and moiſture, is here exhibited in compleat perfection. Being inhabited by a vigilant and warlike people, and unhealthy in the extreme to an European conſtitution, only a few commercial ſettlements have been eſtabliſhed on the ſea coaſts, ſo that we remain almoſt entirely ignorant of their interior vegetable productions, many of which are probably peculiar to theſe countries, and require even a more intenſe heat than is to be found in the plains of Hindoſtan.

All the Eaſt Indian palms, ſuch as the cocoa nut, the areca, the ſago, the palmetto, and the great fan-palm, abound in theſe iſlands, and furniſh food and wine to the natives at the leaſt poſſible expence of labour: nor are they deſtitute of any of thoſe fruit-bearing trees that adorn and enrich the neighbouring continent: the luſcious mango, the ſcented eugenia, the ſitodium and cynometra, remarkable for the bags of oily farinaceous kernels, reſembling the almond and cheſtnut, that they produce from their trunks, the fever-cooling tamarind, the pomegranate, and the orange, with all its kindred ſpecies and varieties, nurtured by the free unſtinted bounty of nature, offer themſelves on every ſide to

Botany. the choice of the inhabitants. The plantain tree, the ginger, the ſugar cane, the turmeric, the pine apple, the yam, the ſweet potatoe, rice, and an infinite variety of kidney beans, cucumbers, melons, and gourds, are found both cultivated and wild in inconceivable luxuriance; the larger graſſes alſo, ſuch as the bamboo, the canna, and the nardus, which have been already noticed as inhabitants of India, acquire a ſtill more ſtately growth in the ſwamps of Java and Sumatra than on the banks of the Ganges. The ſandal wood and the precious calambac or aloes wood, the melaleuca leucadendron, which affords the cajeput oil, and the canaria, from whoſe bark flows the gum elemi, the annotta, the caſſia, and the ebony, together with many other valuable woods and gums, whoſe uſes and even names are unknown to Europe, are produced in theſe iſlands in higher perfection than elſewhere. Of the plants diſtinguiſhed chiefly for their brilliancy of colouring, their grace and ſingularity of form, it would be in vain, without the help of painting, to attempt a deſcription; the greater part have never been introduced into our hot-houſes, and thoſe alone who are familiar with exotic botany can call up at mention of the names of hibiſcus, erythrina, æſchynomene, aralia, ixora, bauhinia, and euphorbia, thoſe images of ſplendour and ſingularity, with which they are aſſociated in the Linnæan ſyſtem.

The exceſſive heat and abundance of moiſture that diſtinguiſh the Indian iſlands, conſtitute a climate peculiarly favourable for the growth of thoſe plants whoſe active qualities and high aromatic flavour place them at the head of the vegetable world: this therefore is the native country of the moſt valued ſpices. Pepper, both the long and the round, is found wild, and is largely cultivated in all theſe iſlands: the laurus cinnamomum, the inner bark of which conſtitutes the pungently fragrant ſpice of the ſame name, is produced chiefly in Sumatra and the neighbouring iſles; caryophyllus aromaticus, the receptacle of whoſe bloſſom is known in the European markets by the name of cloves, abounds for the moſt part in the Moluccas; and the myriſtica, whoſe fruit is the nutmeg, and its inner covering the mace, by the mean jealouſy of the Dutch Eaſt India company has been almoſt entirely reſtricted to the little iſlands of Banda adjoining to Amboyna. But if

this part of the globe be enriched by the moſt precious aromatics, it is alſo armed with the moſt active and deadly poiſons: the ſame burning ſun that exalts the former matures the latter. In the iſland of Celebez is produced the dreadful Macaſſar poiſon, a gum reſin which exudes from the leaves and bark of a kind of rhus, probably the toxicodendron; this ſpecies, together with other poiſonous trees of the ſame iſland, is called by the natives ipo or upas, a name now immortalized by the genius of Dr. Darwin. Such indeed is the deleterious activity of this tree that, when deprived of all poetic exaggeration, it ſtill remains unrivalled in its powers of deſtruction: from the ſober narrative of Rumphius we learn that no other vegetable can live within a nearer diſtance of it than a ſtone's throw; that birds accidentally lighting on its branches are immediately killed by the poiſonous atmoſphere which ſurrounds it; and that in order to procure the juice with ſafety, it is neceſſary to cover the whole body with thick cotton cloth: if a perſon approaches it bare-headed it cauſes the hair to fall off; and a drop of the freſh juice applied on the ſkin, if it ſhould fail to produce immediate death, will cauſe an ulcer very difficult to be healed. Botany.

All that we know of the indigenous vegetables of Auſtralaſia is confined to the immediate neighbourhood of the Britiſh ſettlement at Port Jackſon. The foreſts here are for the moſt part compoſed of lofty trees, with little or no interruption of underwood, ſo that they are readily penetrable in any direction, the principal ſhelter afforded to the few wild animals being in the long matted graſs ſeveral feet in length, which overſpreads the open country. In no diſcovered region has nature been leſs laviſh of her vegetable treaſures than in this part of the great ſouthern continent: the only fruit-bearing plant is a climbing ſhrub, whoſe Linnæan name is billardiera ſcandens, the ſeeds of which are enveloped in a yellow cylindrical pulp taſting like a roaſted apple. The loftieſt of the trees, and which ſometimes riſes to the height of a hundred feet, is the eucalyptus robuſta; it yields the brown gum, and its compact hard red wood has been imported into England by the name of New Holland mahogany. The red gum is procured from the ceratopetalum gummiferum, almoſt the only one of the native woods that will float in water. A conſiderable proportion of the vegetables belong to the natural claſs

of

Botany. of the papilionaceous, yet few even of theſe are referable to any of the old genera; two elegant ſpecies, the platylobium formoſum and pultnæa ſtipularis, have been introduced into our hot-houſes. The other indigenous plants are but little remarkable for their beauty or uſe, and the notice that they obtain in our gardens is chiefly owing to their being foreigners; two of them however deſerve an honourable diſtinction, the embothryum formoſiſſimum, a ſhrub whoſe large full crimſon bloſſoms reſemble the pæony, and the ſtyphelia tubiflora, remarkable for its fringed ſcarlet flowers, nearly analagous in ſhape to the common buck-bean.

As we advance further in the great Pacific ocean towards America, and examine the botany of thoſe numerous cluſters of iſlands diſcovered, for the moſt part, by the illuſtrious Cook and his aſſociates, which extend in breadth from the Ladrones to Eaſter iſland, and in length from the Sandwich Iſlands under the northern tropic, to New Zealand, twenty degrees beyond the ſouthern one, we ſhall find many features of general reſemblance, modified however in ſuch a manner as may naturally be expected by the different proportions which each receives of warmth and moiſture, the two great ſupports of vegetation. The four following eſculent plants are found either wild or cultivated in all the iſlands of this ocean that have yet been viſited, namely, the ſweet potatoe, arranged in the Linnæan ſyſtem as a ſpecies of convolvulus; the yam, whoſe tuberous root in the gardens of Otaheite ſometimes attains the weight of thirty pounds; and two ſpecies of arum, the macrorhizon and eſculentum, plants of conſiderable natural acrimony, but which, by culture and roaſting, become a mild farinaceous food. Of the plants peculiar to the tropical iſlands, the chief is the artocarpus inciſa, or breadfruit: this valuable tree riſes to the height of more than forty feet, with a trunk about the thickneſs of a man's body; its fruit, which is nearly as large as a young child's head, being gathered while yet unripe, and roaſted in the aſhes, is a moſt wholeſome nouriſhment, and in taſte reſembles new wheaten bread: for eight ſucceſſive months every year does this tree continue to furniſh fruit in ſuch abundance, that three of them are amply ſufficient for the ſupport of one man; nor is this the whole of its value, the inner bark is manufactured into cloth, the wood

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is excellent for the conſtruction of huts and canoes, the leaves ſerve inſtead of napkins, and of its milky glutinous juice a tenacious cement and birdlime is prepared. Of almoſt equal importance with the breadfruit, and even more generally diffuſed through the iſlands, are the plantain and cocoa nut trees. The principal of the ſweet juicy fruits are the ſpondias and eugenia, already noticed as natives of India, the citrus decumanum or ſhaddock of the Weſt Indies, and the pandanus odoratiſſimus. The ſweet orange is found ſparingly in the New Hebudes, and the fan palm is met with on the mountains of the Friendly Iſles. The inocarpus, whoſe fruit reſembles the cheſtnut, the ſugar cane, the paper mulberry, together with ſeveral ſpecies of mimoſa and figs, are inhabitants of all the larger and rocky iſles; and the piper methyſticum, from which is prepared the highly intoxicating ava or kava, is unhappily but too frequent. Three plants are eſteemed ſacred, viz. the crateva or puratarurū, the terminalia glabra or tara-iri, and the dracena terminalis, on which account they are chiefly employed in ſhading the morais. Botany.

AMERICA.

Extent.—Origin and Progreſs of the Diſcoveries and Settlements.—Population of this Continent.

MANY modern geographers have paſſed from the deſcription of Aſia to that of Africa; while others, after having deſcribed theſe two continents and America, have concluded with Europe. In the arrangement of this work the political importance of the ſeveral diviſions has been uniformly admitted, as a conſideration of great and deciſive influence, it being proper that thoſe regions which are moſt eminent in the courſe of human affairs ſhould have a preference in rank and delineation. In this point of view no quarter of the world is more inſignificant than Africa: and that a conſiderable part of this laſt continent was known to the ancients, while on the north were the celebrated nations of the Egyptians and Carthaginians, is an argument merely hiſtorical, and which cannot be allowed to preponderate in a ſyſtem of modern geography. In all future ages America muſt continue to be regarded as far more important than Africa, in every reſpect, political or natural: and when to this conſideration it is added, that though a part of Africa was well known to the ancients yet that continent is, upon the whole, far leſs known than any other, there is an additional moſt cogent geographical argument for poſtponing its deſcription to the laſt, as has uſually been done with regard to countries imperfectly diſcovered.

Theſe reflections being premiſed, the next deſcription ſhall be that of America.

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The diviſion of this wide continent into two parts, called North and South America, has not only been in long and general acceptation, but is ſtrongly marked by the hand of nature, in an iſthmus more narrow than that which ſeparates Aſia from Africa; and by a great diverſity in the languages and manners of the original inhabitants. Thoſe authors therefore, however able and ingenious, who have blended all this quarter of the globe in one deſcription, have not only confounded their topics by a heterogeneous mixture, but have ſometimes erred as much as if, in an account of Aſia, the manners of the Arabs had been confounded with thoſe of the Mandſhurs, or the Oſtiaks with the Malays. The general conſideration of this extenſive continent will therefore receive far more clearneſs and preciſion when divided into two parts, each forming a ſeparate introduction to the regions about to be deſcribed.

According to the arrangement obſerved in this work, only two topics may be regarded as inſeparable from a general view of all America, namely, the extent and population of the whole continent, and the progreſſive geography, or rather the epochs of the various diſcoveries.

The ſouthern limit of the American continent is clearly eſtimated from the ſtrait of Magalhaens, or, according to the French depravation of a Portugueſe name, Magellan. But the northern extent is not aſcertained with equal preciſion. If Baffin's bay really exiſt, the northern limit may extend to 80 degrees, or perhaps to the pole. But amidſt the remaining uncertainty, it will be ſufficient to eſtimate the length of America from the 72d degree of north latitude to the ſtrait of Magalhaens, or the 54th degree of ſouth latitude; a ſpace of 126 degrees, or 7560 geographical miles. In South America the greateſt breadth is from cape Blanco in the weſt to that of St. Roque in the eaſt; which, according to the beſt maps, is 48 degrees, or 2880 g. miles. But in the north the breadth may be computed from the promontory of Alaſka to the moſt eaſtern point of Labrador, or even of Greenland, which would add more than a third part to the eſtimate. In Britiſh miles the length of America may be eſtimated at 8800, and ſuppoſing the breadth of North America 3840 g. miles, it will, in Britiſh miles, be about 4400.

The firſt diſcovery of America is generally aſcribed to Chriſtoval Colon, or as commonly called, from the firſt Latin writings on the ſubject, Chriſtopher Columbus. But as it is now univerſally admitted that Greenland forms a part of America, the diſcovery muſt of courſe be traced to the firſt viſitation of Greenland by the Norwegians, in the year 982; which was followed in the year 1003 by the diſcovery of Vinland, which ſeems to have been a part of Labrador, or of Newfoundland. The colony in Vinland was ſoon deſtroyed by inteſtine diviſions; but that in Greenland continued to flouriſh till maritime intercourſe was impeded by the encroaching ſhoals of arctic ice. Though the firſt European colony in America were thus loſt, the Danes aſſerted their right by ſettlements on the weſtern coaſt, called New Greenland, to diſtinguiſh it from the original colony on the eaſtern ſhores, or what is called Old Greenland.*

Greenland continued to be well known; and as many Engliſh veſſels ſailed to Iceland in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, it is probable that this part of America was not wholly unviſited by them. If the voyage of Nicola Zeno, 1380, be not imaginary, he would alſo appear to have viſited Vinland, but can have added nothing to the Norwegian diſcoveries.

A work not long ſince publiſhed at Venice, pretends to ſhew that the Weſt Indies were known before the firſt voyage of Colon.[1] This poſition the author attempts to prove from ſome ancient maps preſerved in the library of St. Mark, which appear from repeated inſcriptions to have been drawn by Andrea Biancho of Venice, in the year 1436. In theſe maps many iſlands are inſerted to the weſt of Europe and Africa,

* In 1773 there was publiſhed at Boſton in New England, a curious pamphlet by Mr. Mather, intituled "America known to the Ancients" The author mentions the ridiculous Welch tale of Madoc 1170, and the voyage of the Zeni in the fourteenth century. To the noted prophecy of Seneca he adds a paſſage of Mela relative to ſome Indians driven on the coaſt of Germany, who were probably Laplanders. The Atlantis of Plato forms another equally cogent argument: and the remainder of the pamphlet is occupied with extraneous matter.

Mr. Mather might have added the Spaniſh fable, that, A. D. 734, after Spain had been conquered by the Moors, the archbiſhop of Porto, ſix biſhops, and a number of Chriſtians, fled to the iſle of *Antillia*, alſo called *Septi Ritadi*. See Mr. Murr's Diſſertation on the globe of Behaim.

[1] Saggio ſulla nautica antica dei Veneziani; di Vincenzio Formaleoni. Ven. 1783, 8vo.

as the Azores, (which ſeem properly to belong to Europe, the neareſt continent,) the Madeira iſlands, the Canaries, &c.; while at a greater diſtance, but at no great interval, is placed *Yſola de Antillia*, of conſiderable extent, but, by a comparative ſcale, not above 150 miles in length by 50 in breadth. Further to the N. W. is another fabulous iſland called Delaman Satanaxio, or Satan's-own-hand, an appellation which rivals any ſince conferred by navigators. This iſland of Antillia, by its coincidence with the French name Antilles, given to part of the Weſt Indies, has completely embarraſſed and miſled Formaleoni, who confeſſes that he cannot conceive whence the term was derived.

A ſhort explanation may ſerve entirely to obliterate this wonderful diſcovery. As human follies are generally ſimilar, a recollection of what happened forty years ago, when many philoſophers aſſerted the indiſpenſable exiſtence of a great ſouthern continent, in order to balance Europe and Aſia, will ſerve to illuſtrate the preſent ſubject. The mathematicians and philoſophers of the middle ages, in like manner, imagined that ſome lands were neceſſary on the oppoſite part of the globe, to balance the known continents. As theſe lands were to them wholly imaginary, they were laid down at random; and the very map of Biancho, which gives a kind of oblong ſquare form, of a regularity unknown to nature, is a proof that the whole is ideal. Theſe imaginary lands were, in the middle ages, called *Ante-Inſulæ*, or *Antinſulæ*, whence the French Antilles* ſimply implying *iſlands oppoſite to the known continents;* the extent of which latter was, at that period, conſidered as about a third part of their real ſize. Hence the reader will immediately perceive that Formaleoni, and many other writers, have, in their inſcience of the literature and ideas of the middle ages, aſſerted as proofs of knowledge what are, on the contrary, proofs of complete ignorance.

The globe of Martin Behaim, 1492, is an intereſting monument, as it ſhews the preciſe extent of geographical knowledge prior to the firſt

* The French alone have retained the old imaginary name, and applied it to the Caribbee Iſlands: but the Spaniards appear to have led the way in this abſurd appellation, and it is a wonder that they did not retain Satan's-own-hand.

The name of *Antinſulæ* was perhaps originally ſubſtituted for that of *Antipodes*, which had been branded by a ſpecial papal anathema. From the life of Colon, by his ſon, it would ſeem that *Antillia* was originally a Portugueſe idea.

voyage of Colon. Mr. Murr has juſtly obſerved that this great navigator could not poſſibly have derived any intelligence from that globe. From the print which he has publiſhed it appears that, beyond the Azores and iſlands of Cape Verd, Behaim inſerted the fabulous Spaniſh iſle of *Antillia*; and beyond this, near the equator, the iſland of *St. Brandan*, alſo called *Ima*, a ſort of ideal paradiſe, deſcribed in a work of the middle ages, ſtyled the Voyage of St. Brandan, and which is palpably founded upon the belief of the pagan Iriſh, that, after death, their ſouls returned to their fathers in a delightful iſland to the weſt. After paſſing the iſle of St. Brandan occurs the *Zipangu*, or Japan, of Marco Polo, at nearly an equal diſtance from St. Brandan as the latter bears from the iſles of Cape Verd; for Ptolemy had extended his oriental longitudes to ſuch a ſurpriſing degree, that there was little vacancy left on the globe, after laying down at random the diſcoveries of Marco Polo. Hence when Colon arrived at the Weſt Indies he conceived that he was in the neighbourhood of Japan; and the name of India was impoſed in a new and improper ſenſe.

From this brief inveſtigation it will ſufficiently appear that there is no room to deprive Colon of one atom of his glory, as Behaim, who was the moſt complete geographer of his time, evinces that there was no prior diſcovery, upon the route followed by that great navigator. The diſcovery of Vinland could ſcarcely have been known to him: and that of Greenland was ſo remote, that there was no room for a ſuggeſtion that this region formed a part of a prodigious continent.* It will now be proper to ſtate the chief epochs of American diſcovery.

A. D. 982. Greenland diſcovered by the Norwegians, who planted a colony.

1003. Vinland, that is a part of Labrador or Newfoundland, viſited by the Norwegians, and a ſmall colony left, which, however, ſoon periſhed.

* In the curious life of Colon by his ſon Fernando, cap. vi. vii. the reaſons are explained which led Colon to ſuſpect the exiſtence of land to the weſt; that the world was ſpherical, and might be circumnavigated; the diſcovery of the Azores, &c., between which and the extreme longitude of Ptolemy there could only be the *third part* of a ſphere; the great ſize of India as deſcribed by the ancients, which induced him to think of reaching that country from the weſt, as Colon imagined that the Heſperides of the ancients muſt be iſlands of the Eaſt Indies, &c. &c. The diſcoveries of Marco Polo, and the iſlands of Antilla and St. Brandan, had alſo great weight.

After

After this there ſeems a long pauſe, for no further diſcovery in America has hitherto been traced, by the utmoſt exertion of learned reſearch, till the time of Colon. But the Portugueſe diſcoveries in the fifteenth century had gradually enlarged knowledge and encouraged enterpriſe. The Canary Iſlands appear to have been faintly known to the Spaniards about the middle of the fourteenth century: and the Normans of France, in the uſual enterpriſing ſpirit of their progenitors, had made piratical excurſions as far as theſe iſles, which were at length completely conquered by a Norman gentleman, Jean de Bethencourt, in 1402, who, by the conſent of the Spaniſh court, aſſumed the title of king of the Canaries.* Madeira is ſaid to have been diſcovered by the Engliſh in 1344;[2] but the iſlands of Cape de Verd ſeem not to have been known till 1446, nor the Azores till 1449.[3] Theſe laſt iſles, from their poſition, properly belong to Europe; and the king of Portugal, in 1466, gave them to his ſiſter the ducheſs of Burgundy. War and famine then prevailing in Flanders, many people paſſed from that country to the Azores, among whom was Job de Huerter, lord of Moirkirchen in Flanders, who afterwards reſided in Fayal, and appears to have had a grant of the Azores from the ducheſs of Burgundy. The celebrated geographer Behaim married the daughter of Huerter: by his account, as inſcribed on his globe, the Azores were diſcovered in 1431, and were ſo named from the numerous goſhawks there found. The diſcovery of theſe iſles, ſo far to the weſt, proved an important motive to the further reſearches of Colon; who was alſo inſtigated by the numerous Portugueſe diſcoveries in Africa, where the Cape of Good Hope had been ſeen by Diaz in 1486.

1492. Colon ſails from Spain, in queſt of the new world, on Friday the 3d day of Auguſt. On the 1ſt of October he was, by his reckoning, 770 leagues W. of the Canaries. His men began to mutiny, and he was forced to promiſe to return in three days, if land did not

* See the very curious hiſtory of this conqueſt, written by his domeſtic chaplains, and publiſhed at Paris 1630, 8vo.

[2] Bergeron, p. 36. Robertſon, America, i. 57. ſays in 1419 by the Portugueſe, by whom it was colonized in 1420.

[3] But Murr ſays that the Azores were explored ſucceſſively 1432--1449. The chronology of theſe diſcoveries would require a diſſertation, and an inſpection of the Portugueſe archives.

appear.

appear. Fortunate preſages ſoon aroſe, as land birds, a cane newly cut, a carvēd piece of wood, and the branch of a tree with freſh red berries.[4] Theſe and other ſymptoms induced Colon to order the ſhips to lye to in the evening of the 11th of October, in the certainty of ſeeing land on the approach of day-light. The night was paſſed in gazing expectation; and a light having been obſerved in motion the cry of *land! land!* reſounded from the headmoſt ſhip. With the dawn of Friday October 12th a beautiful iſle appeared, two leagues to the north. *Te Deum* was ſung with ſhouts of exultation, and every mark of gratitude and veneration to the admiral. Colon was the firſt who landed, to the great aſtoniſhment of the natives, who regarded their viſitors as children of the ſun, the aſtoniſhment on both ſides being indeſcribable.

This firſt diſcovery of Colon he called San Salvador, but it is now better known by the native name of Guanahani, (the Cat Iſland of our mariners,) being one of the group called the Bahama iſles. Colon ſoon afterwards diſcovered Cuba and St. Domingo. After viſiting the Azores on his return, he arrived at Liſbon on the 4th of March 1493.

1493. The *ſecond* voyage of Colon, 25th September. Steering more ſoutherly, he diſcovered ſeveral of the Caribbee iſlands, founded a town in St. Domingo, being the firſt European ſettlement in the new world, and did not return till 1496.

1498. *Third* voyage of Colon towards the ſouth-weſt, where he expected to find the Spice Iſlands of India. On the 1ſt of Auguſt he diſcovered an iſland, which he called Trinidad, not far from the mouth of the river Orinoco. It ſeems ſurpriſing that he did not bend yet further to the ſouth, where he muſt have fallen in with the main land of America. Yet he judged from the eſtuary of the Orinoco that this great river muſt flow through a country of immenſe extent; and he landed in ſeveral places on the coaſt of the continent now called Paria. He then returned to Hiſpaniola or St. Domingo: and in October, 1500, was ſent back to Spain in chains!

1499. Ojeda, an officer who had accompanied Colon in his ſecond voyage, ſails to America with four ſhips, but diſcovered little more than

[4] Robertſon's America, i. 114.

Colon

Colon had done. One of the adventurers was Amerigo Veſpucci, a Florentine man of ſcience, eminently ſkilled in navigation, who perhaps acted as chief pilot, an office on ſuch expeditions of high account, and probably only inferior to that of commodore. On his return, Amerigo publiſhed the firſt deſcription that had yet appeared of any part of the new continent: and the caprice of fame has aſſigned to him an honour above the renown of the greateſt conquerors, that of indelibly impreſſing his name upon this vaſt portion of the earth. It is idle to accuſe his vanity, which never could have eſtabliſhed ſuch a claim: it was, on the contrary, the ignorant and thoughtleſs gratitude of others, which alone could have impoſed the appellation, from regard to the firſt man of letters who had diſcloſed this diſcovery to the general eye, as it ſeems before to have been concealed by jealouſy and intrigue; and the name is, at any rate, better than that of New Holland, or New South Wales, aſſigned in our own moſt enlightened times: nor do we eſteem it any want of gratitude to Cook that no land has yet received its denomination from his name. As the titles of the three other quarters of the world ſpread, by mere accident, from ſmall diſtricts, ſo when the name of America was impoſed there was not the moſt diſtant idea of the prodigious extent of the territory; and it was only underſtood that this appellation was given to a large iſland. If any continent were adjacent, it was underſtood to be the large land of India.* Name of America.

1500. On his voyage to the Eaſt Indies Cabral, the Portugueſe admiral, diſcovers Brazil. This undeſigned diſcovery evinces that, independently of the ſagacity of Colon, America could no longer have remained in obſcurity.

1502. *Fourth* voyage of Colon, in which he diſcovers a great part of the continent, and particularly the harbour of Porto-bello.†

1513. Vaſco Nugnez de Balboa deſcried, from the mountains of the iſthmus, the grand Pacific Ocean; and he afterwards waded into

* In September, 1499, Gama returned to Liſbon, after having viſited India by the Cape of Good Hope: on which voyage he ſailed July 1497.

† He was afterwards created duke of Veragua; but died of the gout 20th May, 1506, and was buried at Seville with this inſcription:

A Caſtilla y a Leon
Nuevo Mundo dio Colon.

the

the waves, and took poſſeſſion of it in the name of the Spaniſh monarch. This diſcovery ſeems to have terminated the vain expectation that America formed part of Aſia.

It ſeems unneceſſary to trace with minuteneſs the other epochs of diſcovery in this quarter. In 1515 the continent was explored as far as Rio de Plata; but even in 1518 little was known concerning its weſtern parts; and twenty-ſix years had elapſed ſince the firſt voyage of Colon, before the exiſtence was rumoured of the empires, or kingdoms, of Mexico and Peru. Hiſpaniola and Cuba ſtill continued to be the chief ſeats of the Spaniſh power. In 1519 Cortez, with eleven ſmall veſſels, containing 617 men, proceeds to the conqueſt of Mexico, which was accompliſhed in 1521. Magalhaens, at the ſame time, having explored the Pacific Ocean, the diſcovery of the weſtern coaſt of America became a neceſſary conſequence. After many reports concerning the riches of Peru, that country was at length viſited in 1526 by Pizarro. in a veſſel from Panama. In 1530 the conqueſt of Peru was begun by Pizarro, at the head of 36 cavalry and 144 infantry: and in ten years that empire was divided among his followers. In 1543 the firſt Spaniſh viceroy appeared in Peru.

In NORTH AMERICA the epochs of diſcovery were more ſlow.

1497. Giovanni Gaboto, a Venetian, called by the Engliſh John Cabot, who had received a commiſſion from Henry VII in 1495, in the view of tracing a nearer paſſage to India, diſcovered Newfoundland, ſo called by his ſailors; and inſpected the American ſhore as far as Virginia: but this land forming merely an obſtacle to his wiſhes he returned to England. The Sebaſtian Cabot, who viſited Brazil in 1516, was probably the ſon, and not the brother of this adventurer.

1500. Corte de Real, a Portugueſe captain, in ſearch of a northweſt paſſage, diſcovered Labrador, which he appears to have ſo called from the ſeeming induſtry of the natives.

1513. Florida diſcovered by Ponce, a Spaniſh Captain.

1524. The powerful kingdom of France had hitherto taken no ſhare in theſe diſcoveries: but in this year Francis I ſent Verazano,

zano, a Florentine, who examined a great part of the coaſt of North America.*

1534. Francis I ſending a fleet from St. Maloes, to eſtabliſh a ſettlement in North America, Cartier the commander, on the day of St. Lawrence, diſcovered the great gulf and river to which he gave the name of that ſaint. In the following year he ſailed about 300 leagues up this noble ſtream to a great cataract, built a fort, and called th country New France.

1539. The Spaniſh captain Soto proceeded from Cuba to complete the conqueſt of Florida. He travelled northward to about latitude 35°, but died in 1542, and was buried on the bank of the river Miſſiſſippi.

1540. Jean de la Roque, lord of Roberual, a gentleman of Picardy, was appointed lieutenant general of the new lands of Canada, Hochelaga, and Saguenay, who ſoon returned without ſucceſs. Roberual again went in 1543. In 1555 the French alſo attempted a ſettlement in Brazil.[5]

1549. Sebaſtian Cabot was appointed by Edward VI grand pilot of England, with a conſiderable penſion, for his ſervices in the diſcovery of America. This Sebaſtian was probably the ſon of John Cabot: and reſpectable deſcendants of the family ſtill exiſt in the commonwealth of Maſſachuſets.[6]

1562. Ribeaut arrived in Florida from France, and returned in 1564: but the colony was deſtroyed by the Spaniards. Another French commander, Gourgues, revenged the inſult, but returned to France in 1568. The induſtrious and venerable Hakluyt has publiſhed the accounts of thoſe French voyages; and though merely a private clergyman, perhaps did more than any potentate to promote a ſimilar ſpirit in England. The other French voyages during this century were of little moment. In 1591 they diſcovered ſome iſles near Canada; and in 1598 a lieutenant general was appointed for Canada, Labrador, &c. without effect.[7] In 1605 Mons viſited Canada: Eſcarbot went thither

* Bergeron ſays that in 1504 the Normans and Bretons already viſited the great fiſhing banks near cape Breton.

[5] Bergeron, p. 106. [6] Morſe, American Geography, 4to. p. 87.

[7] Bergeron, 122.

in 1606. The latter has drawn up a curious hiſtory of the French attempts. The Iroquois or Irokis, many of the lakes, &c. &c. were diſcovered by the French between 1609 and 1620. In 1627 the jeſuits repaired to Canada, which afterwards became a firm and flouriſhing colony.

It will now be proper to conſider the progreſs of the chief ſettlements.

1576. Frobiſher, in ſearch of a N. W. paſſage, diſcovered the ſtraits which retain his name.

1578. Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent for ſettling lands in America. In 1583 he diſcovered and took poſſeſſion of the harbour of St. John, and the country to the ſouth, but was loſt on his return.[8]

The voyage of Drake round the world ſerved to kindle the enthuſiaſm of the Engliſh; and Ralegh obtained a patent ſimilar to that of Gilbert.

1584. Two ſmall veſſels diſpatched by Ralegh unfortunately bent their courſe to that country now called North Carolina, inſtead of reaching the noble bays of Cheſapek or Delawar. They touched at an iſland called Wokocon, probably Ocakoki, ſituated on the inlet into Pamlico Sound; and afterwards at Roanoke near the mouth of Albemarle Sound.* Theſe veſſels returned to England, with two of the natives; and Elizabeth aſſigned to this region the name of Virginia, an appellation which became laxly applied to the Britiſh ſettlements in North America, till it was confined to a different country from the original Virginia.

1585. Ralegh ſent a ſmall colony, under the command of Sir Richard Grenville, who ſettled in the iſle of Roanoke, a moſt incommodious and uſeleſs ſtation, whence they returned in 1586. The account of this ſettlement, illuſtrated with excellent prints, was publiſhed under the auſpices of Ralegh;† who made other unſucceſsful attempts

[8] Hakluyt.

* Robertſon's America, iv 39. But compare the map by John White, in the curious account of Grenville's expedition, publiſhed in Engliſh at Franckfort, 1590, folio.

† Plate 2d repreſents the ſpot of the ſettlement on the iſle Roanoke, with parts of the adjacent continent called Secotan and Weapemeoc, which now ſeem to belong to the *Diſmal Swamp*; ſo injudicious was this firſt ſettlement. But the book is deeply intereſting, as the earlieſt monument of the Engliſh power in America: and it ſeems to have given riſe to the noted Latin Collection of Voyages publiſhed by De Bry.

to colonize the country, and afterwards reſigned his patent to ſome merchants, who were contented with a petty traffic. At the death of Elizabeth, 1603, there was not one Engliſhman ſettled in America: and the Spaniards and Portugueſe alone had formed any eſtabliſhment on that vaſt continent.

The venerable Hakluyt, anxious that his countrymen ſhould partake of the benefit of colonies, procured an aſſociation of men of rank and talents for this purpoſe; and a patent was granted by James I, April the 10th, 1606, that monarch being wholly unconſcious that he was about to eſtablith an independent and mighty empire. The bay of Cheſapek was diſcovered in 1607; and the firſt laſting ſettlement was founded at James Town, in modern Virginia. Captain Smith, who afterwards publiſhed an account of his voyages, diſplayed remarkable ſpirit and enterprize: yet the colony was about to return to England when Lord Delawar arrived in 1610; and though he remained only a ſhort time yet his prudent conduct firmly eſtabliſhed the ſettlement. The ſubſequent events would be tedious to detail, but the following table, extracted from Mr. Morſe's work, will ſupply the chief epochs.

NAMES OF PLACES.	WHEN SETTLED.	BY WHOM.
Quebec,	1608.	By the French.
Virginia,	June 10, 1610.	By Lord Delawar.
Newfoundland,	June, 1610.	By Governor John Guy.
New York, New Jerſey,	about 1614.	By the Dutch.
Plymouth,	1620.	By part of Mr. Robinſon's congregation.
New Hampſhire,	1623.	By a ſmall Engliſh colony near the mouth of Piſcataqua river.
Delawar, Pennſylvania,	1627.	By the Swedes and Finlanders.
Maſſachuſetts Bay,	1628.	By Captain John Endicot and company.
Maryland.	1633.	By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman Catholics.
Connecticut,	1635.	By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode Iſland,	1635.	By Mr. Roger Williams, and his perſecuted brethren.
New Jerſey,	1664.	Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II, and made a diſtinct government, and ſettled ſome time before this by the Engliſh.

NAMES OF PLACES.	WHEN SETTLED.	BY WHOM.
South Carolina.	1669.	By Governor Sayle.
Pennſylvania,	1682.	By William Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
North Carolina.	about 1728.	Erected into a ſeparate government; ſettled before by the Engliſh.
Georgia,	1732.	By General Oglethorp.
Kentucky,	1773.	By Col. Daniel Boon.
Vermont,	about 1764.	By Emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England.
Territory N. W. of Ohio river, Tennaſſee on the S. of Kentucky.	1787.	By the Ohio and other companies.

Having thus mentioned the progreſs of the Engliſh ſettlements, as intimately connected with the diſcovery of the country, it may be neceſſary briefly to ſtate the epochs of a few other remarkable diſcoveries, rather unconnected with theſe ſettlements. In 1585 John Davis, an experienced navigator, viſited the weſtern coaſt of Greenland, and explored the narrow ſea, abſurdly enough called Davis's ſtrait, while it is as wide as the Baltic. On another voyage he proceeded as far north as the iſland of Diſko, and the oppoſite ſhores of Greenland, which he named London coaſt. He alſo diſcovered Cumberland ſtrait; and upon the whole the three voyages of this navigator are of great conſequence. His furtheſt point of diſcovery appears to have been Sanderſon's Hope, lat. 72°, whence turning to the weſt he was impeded by fields of ice.[9]

In 1607, Hudſon made his firſt voyage; and is ſaid to have proceeded along the eaſtern coaſt of Greenland as far as lat. 82°, but probably not above lat. 80°, or the furtheſt extremities of Spitzbergen. On his voyage of 1610 Hudſon diſcovered the ſtraits which bear his name; and that inland ſea, approaching the Baltic in ſize, which has however been called Hudſon's Bay.

In 1616 ſome public ſpirited gentlemen ſent Captain Bilot to attempt a N. W. paſſage. William Baffin failed with him as pilot: and this voyage is one of the moſt ſingular in the whole circle of geography. Far exceeding the utmoſt ſtretch of Davis, they diſcovered Horn Sound,

[9] See Forſter's Voyages and Diſcoveries in the north, p. 298, &c.

Cape

Cape Dudley Diggs, Hakluyt Iſland, Sir Thomas Smith's Sound, Cary's Iſlands, Alderman Jones's Sound, and Sir James Lancaſter's Sound; all of them totally unknown to any preceding or ſucceeding navigator. Baffin thus pretended that he had, in an inland and a narrow ſea, (which, to increaſe the abſurdity, is laid down in our maps with all its ſhores, a matter never before attempted from a firſt and imperfect viſit,) proceeded to the latitude of more than 78°, while Captain Cook, the moſt ſkilful of modern navigators, could not exceed 72°, in the open arctic ocean, and Davis himſelf was ſtopped at 72°, in this very ſea, ſuppoſed to be inland, while it is probably only part of that ocean. It is further remarkable that this voyage is very imperfectly known from Baffin's relation, publiſhed by Purchas; and all the charts and maps of this pretended bay, have been merely laid down from the obſervations contained in his journal; for if Baffin made any chart it was not publiſhed by Purchas. It is perhaps equally remarkable that no doubt ſeems yet to have been entertained concerning the exiſtence of Baffin's Bay; while it is not improbable that he is merely a bold impoſtor, who wiſhed to recommend himſelf to his employers, by the pretence of having impoſed their names on grand and important features of nature, and by his numerous *Sounds*, to have laid a ſcheme for drawing more money from his protectors, for the inveſtigation of a N. W. paſſage. Yet it would ſeem that ſtrong doubts prevailed even at the time, for theſe ſuppoſed diſcoveries were entirely neglected.

Suppoſing that Baffin's Bay were diſmiſſed from our maps, it is probable that Greenland is a continuation of the continent, and ſpreads to the W. about lat. 75°: or it may be detached land, like New Holland, extending towards the pole. The general line of the arctic ſea in this quarter, as ſeen by Mr. Hearne 1772, and Mr. Mackenzie 1789, is about lat. 70°; and it is not improbable that at a little higher latitude it coaleſces with what is called Baffin's bay; in which caſe Greenland is a detached land, and the country on the north of Hudſon's Bay conſiſts of ſeveral large iſlands in the arctic ocean.

The diſcoveries of the Ruſſians, and of Cook, and Vancouver, ſeem to have completed thoſe of the weſtern coaſts of America; and the journies of Hearne and Mackenzie have imparted ſome idea of its confines on the arctic ocean.

Population. The general population of this immenſe continent has been a ſubject of conſiderable diſcuſſion, ſome having ſuppoſed that it amounted to one hundred and fifty millions, while others infer that there are only fifteen millions; and the latter opinion ſeems to approach neareſt to the truth. The ridiculous exaggerations of the old Spaniſh authors, who ſometimes rival Mendez de Pinto, have ſwelled villages to cities, and thouſands to millions. The ſavages in North America are thinly ſcattered, as in the extremities of Aſia, where a thouſand families conſtitute a nation. An American author, who has examined the ſubject with ſome attention, obſerves that the population of Britiſh America does not exceed 200,000; and ſuppoſing the ſavages an equal number, and the inhabitants of the Spaniſh part of North America 100,000, theſe together will amount to half a million. Suppoſing the United States to have five millions; there will be five millions and a half. The empire of Mexico, (which he ought to have included in North America,) from the enumerations made in ſome provinces, probably contains four millions of the native race, and about three millions of foreign extract. Hence there are in Mexico ſeven millions. Peru and Chili can ſcarcely contain more: and he eſtimates the other Spaniſh poſſeſſions in South America at two millions, with four millions for Brazil and Paraguay. The other parts are moſtly wide deſerts; ſo that he concludes that the inhabitants of South America do not exceed twenty millions; nor thoſe of North America five millions and a half.[10]

As Mexico unqueſtionably belongs to NORTH America, ſeven millions, added to five and a half, will yield TWELVE MILLIONS AND A HALF for that diviſion; while SOUTH America, by the ſame calculation, will contain THIRTEEN MILLIONS. In the opinion of Dr Stiles

[10] Callender's Key, &c. 1798.

the

the aboriginal population in all North and South America does not exceed two millions and a half; and it is probable that it never exceeded three millions." Some even infer that fifteen millions is too large an eſtimate for the whole population of the new continent. Probably the population of Africa, which has in like manner been exaggerated by geographers, does not exceed thirty millions. POPULATION.

" Morſe, 704.

NORTH AMERICA.

Boundaries. — *Original Population.*— *Languages.* — *Climate.*— *Inland Seas.*— *Lakes.*—*Rivers.*—*Mountains.*

BOUNDARIES. THIS diviſion of the new continent is bounded on the eaſt by the Atlantic; and on the weſt by the Great, or Pacific Ocean. On the ſouth it is underſtood to extend to the vicinity of Panama, the province of Veragua being univerſally conſidered as part of North America.* The northern limits have not yet been clearly aſcertained; but as it is improbable that a ſlip of land, on the N. W. of Hudſon's Bay, ſhould extend far to the north, the limit may probably be diſcovered about 74° or 75°. In the mean time 72 degrees may be ſafely aſſumed; whence to the ſouthern boundary, about N. lat. 7° 30′, as marked in the map of Lacruz, there will be 64½ degrees, or 3870 g. miles; more than 4500 Britiſh. The breadth from the promontory of Alaſka to the extreme point of Labrador, or the Cape of St. Charles, will, by ſomewhat of a ſoleciſm, exceed the length, which laſt is however conſidered as forming part of the length of the general continent. If it ſhould be diſcovered that Greenland is united to arctic lands of America, as Kamſchatka is, for inſtance, to Aſia, both the length and breadth will be greatly increaſed.

* In the large map of South America, publiſhed at Madrid in 1775, by Don Juan de la Cruz, Cano, y Olmedilla, Geographer to his Catholic Majeſty, the province of Panama extends to the Bay del Almirante, in the north, and includes the Bay of Panama, in the ſouth, Sant Yago, in Veragua, being the firſt town in North America. According to the maps of Lopez there is a chain of mountains running N. and S. called Sierras de Canatagua, and ending in the point of Higuera; which, dividing the provinces of Panama and Veragua, forms a natural boundary between North and South America.

In

In purſuing the arrangement of topics, here adopted in the general deſcription of a continent, the firſt which occurs is the ancient population; but our knowledge of the American languages is ſtill ſo imperfect that the ſubject is involved in great doubts. None of the native nations of America diſplays the ſmalleſt trace of the oblique eyes, and other remarkable features by which the inhabitants of eaſtern Aſia are diſtinguiſhed. Far from this, Pallas, Leſſeps, Tooke, and other ſkilful enquirers, have pronounced that the Techuks, and Koriaks undoubtedly proceeded from America, as they have not one Aſiatic lineament. ORIGINAL POPULATION.

It is to be regretted that, neither in North nor South America, have the languages been compared, analyſed, and claſſed, as has been done with regard to the numerous tribes ſubject to Ruſſia and China. Hence, inſtead of ſolid knowledge, we are overwhelmed with petty diſtinctions, and names without ideas. Upon one point only do inveſtigators ſeem to be agreed, that the friendly and helpleſs people in the furtheſt north, called Iſkimos by the German ſettlers, and in the French mode of ſpelling Eſquimaux, are the ſame race with the Samoieds of Aſia, and Laplanders of Europe. Theſe, with the Peruvians and Mexicans, Dr. Forſter chuſes to conſider as ſtrangers who have ſettled in America. Language.

The curious queſtion concerning the population of America can only be duly examined after the various dialects have been compared with thoſe of Africa; for to thoſe of Europe, or Aſia, they certainly bear no reſemblance. To trace the population from the north of Aſia, not to mention the poſitive contradiction of facts, would be an unneceſſary reſtriction of the ſubject, as the progeny of ſo cold a latitude is ever found rare, feeble, and unenterprizing; while if we conſider the proximity of Africa, and the many copper coloured nations which are there to be found, there will be little reaſon to heſitate concerning the progreſs of the Africans to America, as well as to New Holland. This reſource alone remains; for it has already been ſeen that the language of the Malays, who extended themſelves ſo far to the eaſt of Aſia, has no connection with that of the Americans. Amidſt the wonderous dreams of antiquaries it is ſurprizing that none has attempted to prove

Language. that the Mexicans and Peruvians were deſcendants of the Carthaginians, who fled to the Heſperides in their abhorrence of the Romany oke.

Progreſſive Geography. The progreſſive geography has already been treated under the general head of America. The northern and central parts of this diviſion are ſtill imperfectly known. The number of immenſe lakes, a ſingular feature of North America, began gradually to be diſcloſed by the French, in the 17th century; and the curious reader may trace the progreſs of their knowledge in the travels of Lahontan. Thoſe of Carver, Hearne, and Mackenzie, have added greatly to former diſcoveries; but of the weſtern regions little is known, except the ſhores.

Religion. The ruling religion of North America is the chriſtian, under various forms in the United States; and Roman Catholic in the Spaniſh dominions, and among the French of Canada. That of the native nations ſhall be briefly conſidered in the account of the chief tribes.

Climate. The climate of North America is extremely various, as may be conceived in a region extending from the vicinity of the equator to the arctic circle. In general the heat of ſummer, and the cold of winter, are more intenſe than in moſt parts of the ancient continent. Near Hudſon's Bay Farenheit's thermometer has riſen in July to 85, and ſunk in January to 45 below the cypher: but the mercury begins to congeal at 40, while the ſpirit of wine will ſhew 46.[a] The predominant winds are here from the weſt; and the ſevereſt cold is from the N. W. The middle provinces are remarkable for the unſteadineſs of the weather, particularly the quick tranſitions from heat to cold. Snow falls plentifully in Virginia, but ſeldom lies above a day or two; yet after a mild, or even warm day, James river, where it is two or three miles in breadth, has in one night been clothed with ice, ſo as to be paſſed by travellers. Such ſurpriſing alterations ſeem to proceed from the ſudden change of the wind to the N. W. The provinces of South Carolina and Florida are ſubject to unſufferable heat, furious whirlwinds, hurricanes, tremendous thunder, and fatal lightnings; and the ſudden changes of the weather are alike pernicious to the human frame. A violent tuffoon happened near Charleſtown in 1761, appearing like a

[a] Pennant, A. Z. ccxxx.

colum

column of ſmoke, with a noiſe like thunder, ploughing the very beds of the rivers, and diffuſing univerſal deſtruction throughout its progreſs. Climate.

Few opportunities have yet ariſen for accurate accounts of the climate, in the weſtern parts of North America. That of California ſeems to be in general moderate, and pleaſant, though ſomewhat incommoded by the heat of ſummer. In lat. 59° the land has a moſt barren and wintery appearance, even in June: the gloom is increaſed by frequent fogs, and the glaciers ſeem perpetual.[z]

Among the inland ſeas of North America may be mentioned the gulfs of Mexico, California, and St. Lawrence; with Hudſon's Bay, or rather Hudſon's Sea,* and what is called the ſtrait of Davis, which is probably a ſea of communication between the Atlantic and the arctic oceans. The exiſtence of Baffin's Bay is doubtful, as already ſhewn; but there are ſeveral lakes of ſo great a ſize that they deſerve to be diſtinguiſhed by the name of ſeas, particularly Lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron, which conſtitute one piece of water, about 350 miles in length; and the great Slave Lake in the north is laid down as about 220 B. miles in length. In Aſia no heſitation has been ſhewn by geographers, in applying the name of Sea to the lake of Aral, which is about 200 miles in length; and the ſea of Baikal about 350. But the latter is not above 35 miles in breadth, while the lake Superior is more than 100. Inland Seas.

Of all theſe ſeas the gulf of Mexico is the moſt celebrated, as lying in a moſt favourable climate, and preſenting at its entrance that grand archipelago of North American iſlands called the Weſt Indies. From this gulf a ſingular current ſets towards the N. E., this current called the gulf ſtream paſſes to the banks of Newfoundland, and is ſuppoſed to proceed from the accumulation of waters by the trade wind. It is diſtinguiſhed from other parts of the ocean by the gulf weed; is eight or Gulf of Mexico.

[z] La Perouſe, ii. 67.

* The Bay of Biſcay and that of Bengal may perhaps authoriſe the received appellation; but theſe bays ſhould rather be called ſeas or gulfs, if there were any uniformity in geographic terms.

Inland Seas.

ten degrees warmer; never ſparkles in the night; and when it arrives in cool latitudes produces thick fogs. The trade wind, or diurnal ſea breeze, is from the eaſt, and its collateral points, with little intermiſſion, for nine months of the year. To the ſouth of the gulf of Mexico is the Bay of Honduras, well known in the annals of Engliſh commerce. The Caribbean ſea may perhaps more properly be conſidered as belonging to South America.

The oppoſite ſhore preſents the gulf of California, which ſeems an eſtuary of two large rivers. The jealous ſilence of the Spaniards concerning their American poſſeſſions affords but few materials for a proper illuſtration of their geography. The gulf of St. Lawrence is the well known eſtuary of a river of the ſame name, generally frozen from December to April. This noble gulf is cloſed by the iſland of Newfoundland, and by numerous ſand-banks, particularly what is called the Great Bank. This celebrated fiſhing ſtation is more than 400 miles in length, by about 140 in breadth; the water being from 22 to 50 fathoms, with a great ſwell, and frequently a thick fog. The chief fiſhery begins on the 10th of May, and continues till the end of September, the greateſt number of cod fiſh, taken by a ſingle fiſherman, being twelve thouſand, but the average is ſeven thouſand: the largeſt fiſh was four feet three inches in length, and weighed forty-ſix pounds.[3] More than 500 Engliſh veſſels commonly fiſh on the bank; and the number uſed ſometimes to be equalled by that of the French, who had formerly a ſettlement in the neighbouring iſle of Cape Breton.

Fiſhing Banks.

There are alſo great fiſheries on the banks which lye off the coaſts of Nova Scotia, particularly on that called Saddle Iſland Bank, or rather from the French *Sable*, the Iſle of Sand, which is in the ſhape of a bow, about eight leagues in length, with a narrow pond of ſea water in the middle, filled every tide by a narrow inlet.

Hudſon Sea.

Hudſon Sea may be conſidered as extending from the entrance of Hudſon Strait, to its weſtern extremity, that is from long. 65° W. to long. 95°, or thirty degrees of longitude, which in lat. 60° will be 900 g. miles, or about 1050 Britiſh, exceeding the Baltic in length as

[3] Pennant, A. Z. ccevii.

well

well as breadth. The ſhores are generally rocky and precipitous, and the climate almoſt the perpetual abode of winter, the hot weather in June being brief though violent. This ſea is far from abundant in fiſh, but the common whale is found; and the Beluga, or white whale, is taken in conſiderable numbers in June, when the rivers in the ſouth have diſcharged their ice. Large ſturgeons are alſo caught near Albany. Shell fiſh are extremely rare, common muſcles alone being frequent. The large track of territory on the ſouth of this ſea is the property of the Hudſon's Bay Company, whoſe chief profits are derived from furs. This ſea has been repeatedly explored for a N. W. paſſage, perhaps as little to be expected as a paſſage from the Baltic into the Arctic ocean, or the Euxine. Cheſterfield inlet is a ſingular ſtrait ſtretching far to the weſt, but terminates in a magnificent lake of freſh water, communicating with this ſea by what may be called a broad river; the adjacent land being level, rich in paſture, and abounding with deer.[4] But it is probable that in the N. E. Hudſon Sea opens into the Arctic ocean, where the perpetual ice preſents a complete barrier to commercial views. Inland Seas.

The Gulf, or Sea of Davis may be conſidered as part of the Sea of Hudſon, and probably joins the Arctic ocean. What is called Baffin's Bay is laid down as extending from 46° W. long. to 94°, which, ſuppoſing the degree only 16 g. miles, would yield a length of 768 g. miles; and the breadth on the weſt ſide is repreſented as little inferior. As this ſea is perhaps wholly imaginary, it is unneceſſary to enlarge on the ſubject: and it ſhall only be obſerved that the weſt coaſt of Greenland has not been explored beyond lat. 72°, or Sanderſon's Hope, and an old Daniſh ſettlement called Opernevig. In the midſt of Baffin's Bay many maps preſent a large tract called James Iſland, which perhaps is a promontory paſſing from Greenland.* Davis.

As in the general deſcription of Aſia not only the Caſpian Sea, but thoſe of Aral and Baikal have been commemorated, ſo the vaſt lakes, above-mentioned, may here be conſidered as detached inland ſeas.

[4] Pennant, A. Z. ccxcv.

* It is rather a large iſle in the north of Hudſon Sea, laid down from erroneous obſervations.

The

Lakes. Sea of Canada.

The lake Superior, Michigan, and Huron, in this point of view, form one large inland ſea, which might be called the ſea of Canada, or that of Huron. This expanſion of water, as already mentioned, is about 350 miles in length, and more than 100 at its greateſt breadth: according to the French charts that part of this ſea, which is called Lake SUPERIOR, is not leſs than 1500 miles in circumference. The greater part of the coaſt ſeems to conſiſt of rocks and uneven ground, like thoſe of the ſea of Baikal. The water is pure and tranſparent; and the bottom generally compoſed of large rocks. There are ſeveral iſlands, one of which called Minong is about 60 miles in length: the ſavages ſuppoſe that theſe iſlands are reſidences of the Great Spirit. More than thirty rivers fall into this lake, ſome of them of conſiderable ſize, but the geography is far from being perfect. The banks of a river on the N. W. abound with native copper. The chief fiſh are ſturgeon and trout; the latter being caught at all ſeaſons, and ſaid to weigh from twelve to fifty pounds.[5] This part of the Sea of Canada opens into the lake Huron, by the ſtraits of St. Mary, about 40 miles in length, and in ſome places only one or two miles in breadth; with a rapide towards the N. W. extremity, which may however be deſcended by canoes, and the proſpects are here delightful. The ſtorms on this large expanſe of water are as dangerous as thoſe on the ocean, the waves breaking more quick, and running nearly as high. The circumference of that part called Lake HURON is ſaid to be about 1000 miles; and on the northern ſide are ſome iſlands called Manatulan, implying the place of ſpirits. Another ſhort ſtrait leads into the third lake called MICHIGAN, alſo navigable for ſhips of any burthen. When the population of North America ſhall have diffuſed itſelf towards the weſt, theſe lakes may become the ſeats of flouriſhing cities, and of arts and ſciences now unknown in Europe. Their latitude correſponds with that of the Black Sea, and the gulf of Venice; nor are the rigours of the Baltic here to be apprehended. From the deſcriptions it does not appear that theſe lakes are ever impeded with ice.*

[5] Morſe, 127.

* Mr. Morſe, p. 136, ſays that theſe lakes never freeze, but the communications between them are frozen for a conſiderable time; and Hudſon River is impeded with ice for three months in the year. The climate however gradually becomes warmer.

The

The lake of Winnipeg or Winipic may alſo well aſpire to the name of an inland ſea:* but it yields conſiderably to the great Slave lake, or rather ſea, a recent diſcovery, from which Mackenzie's river extends its courſe to the Arctic ocean. The Slave ſea, according to Mr. Arrowſmith's maps, is about 200 miles in length, by 100 at its greateſt breadth. The geography of this lake is rather imperfect; and it is not improbable that other large lakes may be found in the weſtern regions of North America, which remain unexplored. Lakes. Winipic. Slave ſea.

The ſmaller lakes ſhall be briefly deſcribed in the diviſions of territory to which they belong. It may here ſuffice to obſerve that there are probably above two hundred lakes of conſiderable ſize in North America; a ſingularity which diſtinguiſhes it from any other portion of the globe. A theoriſt might perhaps conſider this an additional argument for the novelty of this continent, as the waters ſtill cover ſo much of its ſurface.

In the ancient continent the rivers and mountains are uſually confined within the limits of ſome great ſtate, to which of courſe the deſcription becomes appropriated. But in America theſe features are on ſo great a ſcale, that they pervade immenſe territories, divided among diſtinct nations, whence it would be difficult to aſſign a juſt arrangement. The river of Amazons, for example, purſues a long courſe in Spaniſh America, and an equal extent through the Portugueſe territory, if the French do not now claim the northern ſhore. The river Miſſiſſippi, or rather Miſſouri, belongs in part to the American States and in part to Spain. Amidſt this uncertainty, it ſeems preferable to deſcribe the chief rivers and mountains under the general heads of North and South America. Rivers.

Length of courſe ſeems univerſally and juſtly conſidered as the chief diſtinction of a river, which becomes noble as it were by the extent of its genealogy; while the great breadth and depth of a ſhort ſtream iſſuing from a lake would deſerve little attention. In this point of view the Miſſiſſippi is the moſt diſtinguiſhed among the rivers of North America; its ſource having already been traced to three ſmall lakes Miſſouri.

* According to Mr. Mackenzie, p. lxii. this lake diſcharges itſelf into Hudſon's Bay, by the river Nelſon, an elongation of the Saſkaſhawin. See Arrowſmith's map of N. America, edition 1802.

above

Rivers. above lat. 47°, and it enters the ſea in lat. 29°, after a comparative courſe of about 1400 B. miles. Nay of late the ſources of the Miſſouri (the chief ſtream) have been detected about 600 B. miles more remote. The account of this noble river ſhall be tranſcribed from a recent ſyſtem of American geography, as the author muſt have had ſeveral opportunities of being well informed.

" The Miſſiſſippi receives the waters of the Ohio and Illinois, and their numerous branches from the eaſt; and of the Miſſouri, and other rivers, from the weſt.* Theſe mighty ſtreams united are borne down with increaſing majeſty, through vaſt foreſts and meadows, and diſcharged into the gulf of Mexico. The great length and uncommon depth of this river, ſays Mr. Hutchins, and the exceſſive muddineſs and ſalubrious quality of its waters after its junction with the Miſſouri, are very ſingular. The direction of the channel is ſo crooked, that from New Orleans to the mouth of the Ohio, a diſtance which does not exceed 460 miles in a ſtraight line, is about 856 by water. It may be ſhortened at leaſt 250 miles, by cutting acroſs eight or ten necks of land, ſome of which are not thirty yards wide. Charlevoix relates that in the year 1722, at Point Coupée, or Cut Point, the river made a great turn; and ſome Canadians, by deepening the channel of a ſmall brook, diverted the waters of the river into it. The impetuoſity of the ſtream was ſo violent, and the ſoil of ſo rich and looſe a quality, that in a ſhort time the point was entirely cut through, and travellers ſaved fourteen leagues of their voyage. The old bed has no water in it, the times of the periodical overflowings only excepted. The new channel has been ſince ſounded with a line of thirty fathoms, without finding bottom. Several other points of great extent, have, in like manner, been ſince cut off, and the river diverted into new channels.

" In the ſpring floods the Miſſiſſippi is very high, and the current ſo ſtrong, that it is with difficulty it can be aſcended; but this diſadvantage is remedied in ſome meaſure by eddies, or counter currents, which are generally found in the bends cloſe to the banks of the river, and aſſiſt the aſcending boats. The current at this ſeaſon deſcends at the rate of about five miles an hour. In autumn, when the waters are low,

* It is now known that the Miſſouri receives the Miſſiſſippi.

it does not run faſter than two miles: but it is rapid in ſuch parts of the river as have cluſters of iſlands, ſhoals, and ſand banks. The circumference of many of theſe ſhoals being ſeveral miles, the voyage is longer, and in ſome parts more dangerous, than in the ſpring. The merchandize neceſſary for the commerce of the Upper Settlements, on or near the Miſſiſſippi, is conveyed in the ſpring and autumn in batteaux, rowed by eighteen or twenty men, and carrying about forty tons. From New Orleans to the Illinois the voyage is co· .nonly performed in eight or ten weeks. A prodigious number of iſlands, ſome of which are of great extent, interſperſe that mighty river. Its waters, after overflowing its banks below the river Ibberville on the eaſt, and the river Rouge on the weſt, never return within them again, there being many outlets or ſtreams by which they are conducted into the bay of Mexico, more eſpecially on the weſt ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, dividing the country into numerous iſlands. Theſe ſingularities diſtinguiſh it from every other known river in the world. Below the Ibberville the land begins to be very low on both ſides of the river, acroſs the country; and gradually declines as it approaches nearer to the ſea. The iſland of New Orleans, and the lands oppoſite, are to all appearance of no long date, for in digging ever ſo little below the ſurface you find water, and great quantities of trees. The many beeches and breakers, as well as inlets, which have ariſen out of the channel, within the laſt half century, at the ſeveral mouths of the river, are convincing proofs that this peninſula was wholly formed in the ſame manner. And it is certain that when La Salle ſailed down the Miſſiſſippi to the ſea, the opening of that river was very different from what it is at preſent. Rivers.

"The nearer you approach the ſea this truth becomes more ſtriking. The bars that croſs moſt of theſe ſmall channels, opened by the current, have been multiplied by means of the trees carried down with the ſtreams; one of which, ſtopped by its roots or branches in a ſhallow part, is ſufficient to obſtruct the paſſage of thouſands more, and to fix them at the ſame place. Aſtoniſhing collections of trees are daily ſeen in paſſing between the Balize and the Miſſouri. No human force is ſufficient to remove them, and the mud carried down by the river ſerves to bind and cement them together. They are gradually covered, and every

Rivers. inundation not only extends their length and breadth, but adds another layer to their height. In leſs than ten years time canes, ſhrubs, and aquatic timber, grow on them; and form points and iſlands which forcibly ſhift the bed of the river.

"Nothing can be aſſerted with certainty reſpecting the length of this river. Its ſource is not known, but ſuppoſed to be upwards of three thouſand miles from the ſea as the river runs. We only know that from St. Anthony's falls in lat. 45°, it glides with a pleaſant clear current, and receives many large and very extenſive tributary ſtreams, before its junction with the Miſſouri, without greatly increaſing the breadth of the Miſſiſſippi, though they do its depth and rapidity. The muddy waters of the Miſſouri diſcolour the lower part of the river, till it empties into the Bay of Mexico. The Miſſouri is a longer, broader, and deeper river than the Miſſiſſippi, and affords a more extenſive navigation; it is, in fact, the principal river, contributing more to the common ſtream than does the Miſſiſſippi. It has been aſcended by French traders about 12 or 1300 miles; and from the depth of the water and breadth of the river at that diſtance, it appeared to be navigable many miles further.

"From the Miſſouri river to nearly oppoſite the Ohio, the weſtern bank of the Miſſiſſippi is, ſome few places excepted, higher than the eaſtern. From *Mine au Fer* to the Ibberville the eaſtern bank is higher than the weſtern, on which there is not a ſingle diſcernible riſing or eminence for the diſtance of 750 miles. From the Ibberville to the ſea there are no eminences on either ſide, though the eaſtern bank appear rather the higheſt of the two, as far as the *Engliſh turn*. Thence the banks gradually diminiſh in height to the mouths of the river, where they are but a few feet higher than the common ſurface of the water.

"The ſlime which the annual floods of the river Miſſiſſippi leave on the ſurface of the adjacent ſhores, may be compared with that of the Nile, which depoſits a ſimilar manure, and for many centuries paſt has inſured the fertility of Egypt. When its banks ſhall have been cultivated, as the excellency of its ſoil and temperature of the climate deſerve, its population will equal that of any other part of the world. The trade, wealth, and power of America may at ſome future period

depend, and perhaps center, upon the Miſſiſſippi. This alſo reſembles the Nile in the number of its mouths, all iſſuing into a ſea that may be compared to the Mediterranean, which is bounded on the north and ſouth by the two continents of Europe and Africa, as the Mexican bay is by North and South America. The ſmaller mouths of this river might be eaſily ſtopped up by means of thoſe floating trees, with which the river, during the floods, is always covered. The whole force of the channel being united, the only opening then left would probably grow deep, and the bar be removed. Rivers.

" Whoever for a moment will caſt his eye over a map of the town of New Orleans, and the immenſe country around it, and view its advantageous ſituation, muſt be convinced that it, or ſome place near it, muſt in proceſs of time become one of the greateſt marts in the world.

" The falls of St. Anthony, in about lat. 45°, received their name from Father Lewis Hennepin, a French miſſionary, who travelled in theſe parts about the year 1680, and was the firſt European ever ſeen by the natives. The whole river, which is more than 250 yards wide, falls perpendicularly about thirty feet, and forms a moſt pleaſing cataract. The rapids below, in the ſpace of 300 yards, render the deſcent conſiderably greater, ſo that when viewed at a diſtance they appear to be much higher than they really are. In the middle of the falls is a ſmall iſland about forty feet broad, and ſomewhat longer, on which grow a few ſcragged hemlock and ſpruce trees; and about half way between this iſland and the eaſtern ſhore is a rock lying at the very edge of the fall in an oblique poſition, five or ſix feet broad, and thirty or forty long. Theſe falls are peculiarly ſituated, as they are approachable without the leaſt obſtruction from any intervening hill or precipice, which cannot be ſaid of any other conſiderable fall perhaps in the world. The country around is exceedingly beautiful. It is not an uninterrupted plain, where the eye finds no relief, but compoſed of many gentle aſcents, which in the ſpring and ſummer are covered with verdure, and interſperſed with little groves, that give a pleaſing variety to the proſpect.

" A little diſtance below the falls is a ſmall iſland of about an acre and a half, on which grow a great number of oak trees, almoſt all the

Rivers. branches of which able to bear the weight are, in the proper ſeaſon of the year, loaded with eagles' neſts. Their inſtinctive wiſdom has taught them to chooſe this place, as it is ſecure, on account of the rapids above, from the attacks of either man or beaſt.

"From the beſt accounts that can be obtained from the Indians, we learn that the four moſt capital rivers on the continent of North America, viz. the St. Lawrence, the Miſſiſſippi, the river Bourbon, and the Oregon, or the river of the Weſt, have their ſources in the ſame neighbourhood. The waters of the three former are ſaid to be within thirty miles of each other; the latter is rather further weſt.

"This ſhews that theſe parts are the higheſt lands in North America; and it is an inſtance not to be paralleled in the three other quarters of the globe, that four rivers of ſuch magnitude ſhould take their riſe together, and each, after running ſeparate courſes, diſcharge their waters into different oceans, at the diſtance of more than two thouſand miles from their ſources. For in their paſſage from this ſpot to the bay of St. Lawrence, eaſt; to the bay of Mexico, ſouth; to Hudſon's bay, north; and to the bay at the ſtraits of Annian, weſt, where the river Oregon is ſuppoſed to empty, each of them traverſes upwards of two thouſand miles.*

Ohio. "The Ohio is a moſt beautiful river. Its current gentle, waters clear, and boſom ſmooth and unbroken by rocks and rapids, a ſingle inſtance only excepted. It is one quarter of a mile wide at Fort Pitt; 500 yards at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway; 1200 yards at Louiſville: and the rapids half a mile in ſome few places below Louiſville: but its general breadth does not exceed 600 yards. In ſome places its width is not 400; and in one place particularly, far below the rapids, it is leſs than 300. Its breadth in no one place exceeds 1200 yards; and at its junction with the Miſſiſſippi neither river is more than 900 yards wide."[6]

Mr. Morſe proceeds to ſtate the preciſe meaſurement of the length of the Ohio, with all its windings, from Fort Pitt to its junction with the

* Theſe obſervations only ſhew the ſtate of geographical knowledge in America at the time. The ſuppoſed ſources, &c. of the rivers are wholly erroneous; and the Bourbon ſeems a non-exiſtence, but as it was ſaid to flow into Hudſon's Bay may be the river Saſkaſhawin, of which the Nelſon may be regarded as a continuation.

[6] Morſe's American Geography.

Miſſiſſippi,

Miſſiſſippi, amounting to 1188 miles. The inundations commonly begin with April, and ſubſide in July. A veſſel drawing twelve feet water might ſafely navigate from Pittſburg to the ſea. Two great rivers unite to form the Ohio, namely the Monongahela, and the Allegany, both of them ſubſervient to navigation. RIVERS.

From the preceding ample deſcription, which the great importance of theſe rivers to the proſperity of North America authorizes, it appears that, ſetting aſide the capricious diſtinctions of the ſavage tribes, the Miſſouri muſt be regarded as the chief river which conſtitutes what is called the Miſſiſſippi. Meaſured on the ſame merely comparative ſcale which has been adopted to give a general idea of the length of the rivers in Europe and Aſia, the Miſſouri or Miſſiſſippi will be about 2000 miles in length. The great river of St. Lawrence is far inferior, being chiefly remarkable for its breadth. In South America the Maranon, or river of Amazons, meaſured on the ſame comparative ſcale, will be found to be about 2300, and the Rio de la Plata about 1900. In the ſame comparative way, meaſured on the accurate planiſphere of Mr. Arrowſmith, the Kian Ku exceeds the Miſſouri and rivals the Maranon, which laſt is probably alſo rivalled by the Ob. Some deceptions have ariſen on this curious ſubject, as the large rivers in America have been computed by actual navigation of the whole, or a part, in which every winding is taken into the account; while the length of thoſe in Aſia has been merely aſſumed from the general appearance in maps, without due attention to the innumerable deviations. A favourable climate, and other circumſtances, render the American rivers more navigable; the Ob being impeded by ice, and the Kian Ku by the alpine rocks of Tibet.*

The

* From Mr. Arrowſmith's laſt map of the American States, with corrections and additions to 1802, and his intereſting map of North America of the ſame date, it appears that the *Miſſiſſippi* riſes from the Turtle Lake, lat. 47° 40′, not far to the ſouth of the Red Lake. But from the laſt map, and the moſt authentic travellers, it is clear that the *Miſſiſſippi* ſhould properly be termed the MISSOURI, the laſt being the moſt conſiderable river, and riſing from ſources in the weſtern chain about 600 B. miles more remote than the furtheſt ſource of the Miſſiſſippi, ſo that the comparative courſe of the Miſſouri may be about 2000 B. miles. The Miſſouri, like the St. Lawrence and river of Amazons, is a white muddy ſtream, while the Miſſiſſippi is clear like the Black River, which falls into that of Amazons. Charlevoix, ii. 218, has deſcribed the confluence as the grandeſt in the world. Each river is about half a league in breadth; but the Miſſouri is the broadeſt

Rivers. St. Lawrence.

The noble river of St. Lawrence is univerſally regarded as the ſecond in North America, being not leſs than 90 miles wide at its mouth, and navigable for ſhips of the line as far as Quebec, a diſtance of 400 miles from the ſea. Near Quebec it is five miles in breadth; and at Montreal from two to four.[7] Though there be ſome rapids, yet this grand river may be conſidered as navigable to Kingſton, and the lake Ontario, 743 miles from the ſea. It is difficult to define the preciſe ſource of the St. Lawrence, though that name be generally confined to the river iſſuing from lake Ontario; while the Niagara, which flows from the lake Erie, is regarded as a diſtinct ſtream. As in Aſiatic geography the Angara is traced from the ſea of Baikal, without aſſuming the Selinga as a further ſource, ſo by analogy the St. Lawrence cannot be traced beyond the lake Ontario, nor can geographical uſage permit it to be traced to the lake Superior; and far leſs, with Mr. Weld, to the lake Winipic, which, according to the beſt maps, has no communication whatever with what has been above called the ſea of Canada, conſiſting of the joint lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron. The length of the St. Laurence may therefore be about 700 B. miles, the breadth being the grand characteriſtic.

The other chief rivers in North America are the Saſkaſhawin, the Athabaſca, the Unjiga or Mackenzie's river,* the Rio Bravo, which flows into the gulf of Mexico; that of Albany, which joins Hudſon's Bay: Nelſon river and Churchill river are alſo conſiderable ſtreams which flow into that ſea; but their geography is far from being perfect. The

broadeſt and the moſt rapid. Le Page du Pratz, in his hiſtory of Louiſiana, (i. 202. of the Engliſh abridgment) ſays that the French word *Miſſiſſippi* is a contraction of the ſavage term *Meact-Chaſſipi*, which literally denotes the ancient Father of Rivers. Mr. Hutchins obſerves (Imlay, 389) that the natives ſtill call it Meſchaſipi; and the ſame author adds, p. 405, that the Miſſouri "affords a more extenſive navigation, and is a longer, broader, and deeper river than the Miſſiſſippi." The journey of a great ſavage traveller to the ſources of the Miſſouri and to the great weſtern river, Du Pratz, ii. 125, ſeems to correſpond with recent diſcoveries, and the Otter nation probably ſtill exiſts. The free navigation of the Miſſiſſippi was ſecured to the American States by the treaty with Spain 1795. The inundations begin in March and ſubſide in July. It appears from Mr. Mackenzie's Voyages 1802, 4to. p. xxxvi. that ſome rivers of N. America have ſunk more than ten feet beneath their ancient level.

7 Weld, ii. 56. 8vo.

* See the article Native Tribes for further details.

ſame

ſame obſervation muſt be extended to the Oregan, or great river of the weſt, which, confined by a chain of mountains, runs S., till by a weſtern bend it join the Pacific. But the diſcovery of the weſtern regions of America may diſcloſe ſome conſiderable ſtreams in that quarter. Rivers.

The mountains of North America are far from rivalling the Andes in the ſouth. Some irregular ranges pervade the Iſthmus, but it ſeems mere theory to conſider them as connected with the Andes, as they have neither the ſame character nor direction. In the iſthmus there are alſo ſeveral volcanoes; but the natural hiſtory of Spaniſh America is extremely imperfect. Mountains.

The centre of North America ſeems to preſent a vaſt fertile plain, watered by the Miſſouri and its auxiliary ſtreams. On the weſt, ſo far as diſcovered, a range of mountains proceeds from New Mexico in a northern direction, and joins the ridge called the Stoney Mountains, which extend to the vicinity of the Arctic ocean. The Stoney Mountains are ſaid to be about 3500 feet above their baſe, which may perhaps be 3000 feet above the ſea. In general, from the accounts of navigators who have viſited this coaſt, it ſeems to reſemble that of Norway, being a wide alpine country of great extent; while the ſhore, like that of Norway, preſents innumerable creeks and iſlands. This alpine tract, from the Stoney Mountains and Mackenzie's river weſtwards to the ſource of the Oregan and Beering's ſtrait, may perhaps contain the higheſt mountains in North America, when completely explored by the eye of ſcience. On the north eaſt, Greenland, Labrador,* and the countries around Hudſon Sea, preſent irregular maſſes covered with eternal ſnow, with black naked peaks, reſembling in form the ſpires of the alps, but of far inferior elevation, mountains generally decreaſing in height towards the pole.

* A high ridge paſſes S. W. from the coaſt of Labrador to the ſource of the Utawas, dividing the rivers that fall into St. Lawrence and Hudſon's Bay. The Stoney mountains run parallel with the Pacific from Cook's entry to the river Columbia, where they are more diſtant from the coaſt and leſs elevated. The rocks weſt of Winnipic are ſoft limeſtone, on the E. a dark grey granite: and all the great lakes are between the limeſtone and granite ranges. Mackenzie, 400, 401, 403.

The

Apalachian Mountains.

The moſt celebrated mountains in North America are thoſe called the Apalachian, paſſing through the territory of the United States from the S. W. to the N. E. According to the beſt maps they commence on the north of Georgia, where they give ſource to many rivers running ſouth to the gulf of Mexico; and to the Tenaſſee and others running north. There are ſeveral collateral ridges, as the Iron, or Bald Mountains, the White Oak Mountains, and others; the exterior ſkirt on the N. W. being the Cumberland Mountains. The Apalachian chain thence extends through the weſtern territory of Virginia, accompanied with its collateral ridges, the breadth of the whole being often ſeventy miles, and proceeds through Pennſylvania, then paſſes Hudſon river; and afterwards riſes to more elevation, but ſeems to expire in the country of New Brunſwick.*

The Apalachian chain may thus extend about 900 g. miles, a length unrivalled by any European mountains, except the Norwegian alps. In no chain perhaps are the collateral ridges more diſtinct; and a naturaliſt would at once pronounce that the central, or higheſt, muſt be granitic, the next ſchiſtoſe, and the exterior belts calcareous. The granite ſeems commonly to conſiſt of white feltſpar, bluiſh or rather pellucid quartz, and black mica. The ſchiſtoſe band, generally metalliferous in other regions, here preſents copper ore; and in Canada lead and ſilver are ſaid to have been diſcovered. The lime ſtone contains, as uſual, many petrifactions, particularly the cornu ammonis, a ſmall ſcallop ſhell, and ſeveral ſorts of corals.[8] The height of the chief ſummits does not appear to be preciſely aſcertained, but probably does not exceed 3000 feet above the ſea; and they are often clothed with

* The chief ſummits appear to be in the province of New Hampſhire; where the White Mountains are by ſome reported to be 9000 feet above the ſea. For a particular account of theſe mountains ſee Morſe's American Geography, p. 292. But the Duke de Rochefoucault ſays that no mountains in North America exceed the Voſges, or Waſgau. Kalm, ii 352, obſerves that the ſnow, even on the higheſt mountains, always melts during the ſummer. It may well be affirmed that the White Mountains cannot much exceed 4000 feet: and the glaciers of the Pyrenees at 9000 feet ſhew the futility of the calculation. It is probable that the higheſt mountains of North America are towards the weſtern ſhores along the Pacific.

[8] Pennant, A. Z. ccxxix.

foreſts,

foreſts. Mr. Weld conjectures that the Peaks of Otter, the higheſt of what are called the Blue Mountains, are little more than 2000 feet in height; and at any rate much inferior to that of Snowdon. MOUNTAINS.

The late travels of the duke de Rochefoucault in North America, preſent ſome valuable information concerning the orology.* The primitive calcareous rock is mingled, in veins or banks, with the granitic, and is evidently contemporary. Near Philadelphia large pieces of talc appear, inſtead of mica. There are alſo veins of hornblende, quartz, and marble, in the poſition of metallic veins. It is a remarkable feature in the mineralogy that the granitic mountains approach neareſt to the ſea, while at a greater diſtance the rocks are calcareous; and the red primitive limeſtone is ſometimes covered with breccia, and argillaceous ſchiſtus. The lakes of Upper Canada are ſurrounded with calcareous rocks; while in Lower Canada, from Montreal to the ſea, the granite predominates.† At the iſle of St. Helen this ſubſtance is apparent, and at the mountain of Beloeil diſplays much black ſchorl. The black ſlate of our traveller is the black ſchiſtoſe limeſtone of Kalm. The rock of Quebec is ſaid to conſiſt of grey granite, mingled with ſchorls; and was called the rock of diamonds, becauſe quartz cryſtals were found. In the vicinity blocks of granite are mingled with limeſtone, and the bank of Newfoundland is ſuppoſed to be a maſs of granite, covered with ſand. Towards New York and Boſton the rocks are of a ſoft granite interſperſed with limeſtone and ſchiſtus; but towards Carolina and Florida the granitic mountains are at a conſiderable diſtance from the ſea, which ſeems gradually to have retired. This obſerving traveller is of opinion that the higheſt mountains in North America do not exceed the elevation of the Voſges in France, that is perhaps 4 or 5000 feet.

But from the travels of Kalm, a far more ſkilful naturaliſt, it would appear that the rocks of North America often conſiſt of a ſubſtance un-

* See alſo the Journal des Mines, No. 54, Ventoſe, an 7. This valuable journal has been recently reſumed, after an interval of two years: No. 55 being Germinal an 9.

† The cataract of Niagara falls over a fine white calcareous freeſtone, hardened by the ſand of quartz; and which our traveller ſtrangely ſuppoſes to be gypſum.

Mountains. known to modern ſyſtems of mineralogy, and which may be termed *calcareous granite*, the abſence of the felſpar being ſupplied by primitive limeſtone. The Swediſh traveller minutely deſcribes this ſubſtance, as conſiſting of grey limeſtone, purple, or garnet coloured quartz, and black mica.[9] The limeſtone effervesces ſtrongly with aqua-fortis; and there are ſome particles of felſpar. Another mountain, near the river St. Lawrence, is compoſed of red felſpar, black mica, white limeſtone, with grains of the purple or red quartz. Sometimes this calcareous granite is ſchiſtoſe, or aſſumes the form of gneiſs. Part of the hills near the iſle of Orleans is compoſed of grey quartz, reddiſh and grey limeſtone, and grains of ſand. Near fort St. Frederick, or Crown Point, Kalm obſerved fragments of granite mixed with ſchorl, without any calcareous addition; and he found ammonites about two feet in diameter. Towards the lake Champlain he obſerved quantities of red ſand, which ſeemed to be decompoſed or pounded garnets.[10] The Apalachian mountains he does not appear to have examined: but he mentions the calcareous granite as frequent in Pennſylvania, and often uſed in building at Philadelphia. He deſcribes the lapis ollaris of New England, as ſometimes ſpotted with ſtarry aſbeſtos; while green ſoap rock and amianthus are common in Pennſylvania. The hatchets of the ſavages were frequently of fine baſalt; their knives of quartz and petroſilex; their kettles of lapis ollaris, grey or green; and their tobacco pipes of the ſame ſubſtance; but thoſe of the chiefs, of beautiful red ſerpentine, from the weſt of the Miſſiſſippi.*

The mountains in the Iſthmus, as well as thoſe in the weſtern part of North America, are certainly of far ſuperior elevation: and in moſt maritime diviſions of the old and new continents the higheſt mountains are towards the weſt, as their moſt precipitous ſides uniformly front the weſt and ſouth. But of the Iſthmus, the kingdom of Mexico, and

[9] ii. 346. 349. 357. [10] Ib. 196. 199.

* Of the ſame deſcription were the celebrated *Calumets*, or pipes of peace, ſo called by the French ſettlers in Canada, from the Norman word *chalumeau*, the native term being *poagan*, and in the Iroquois *ganondao*. Lahontan, i. 270. He means the head of the calumet, eight inches long; while the mouth projected about three inches; the pipe or ſtem, being about four or five feet in length, was probably of wood, and was adorned with feathers. Ib. 47.

California, the natural hiſtory and geography are far from being clearly illuſtrated. In the province of Darien the Andes, according to the beſt maps, ſeem to expire in the ridge called Sierra Tagargona, which may be ſaid to be loſt in the ſea on the weſt of the gulf of Darien. This ridge, with the peak of Panama, belong to South America: but the inſpection of any good map of this part will ſufficiently ſhew that the ridges in the province of Panama have not the ſmalleſt connection with the Andes, but are ſcattered in every direction. On the weſt of that province, as already ſtated, a conſiderable chain paſſes north and ſouth, which may be regarded as a natural diviſion between the two great portions of America. This chain is called the Sierra de Canatagua. The ridges in Veragua alſo run N. and S. and on the weſt of that province is the volcano of Varu. Of the nature and height of the mountains in Mexico there is no particular account. Not far from Vera Cruz, Chappe D'Auteroche aſcended a mountain of great height, which ſeems to have been volcanic;[11] and he adds that the mountain of Oriſaba is ſaid to be the higheſt in that region, the ſnowy ſummit being viſible from Mexico at the diſtance of twenty leagues. Mountains.

On the weſtern ſide of North America volcanoes have been obſerved by navigators; and one is ſaid to exiſt in the province of New Hampſhire.[12]

According to the uſual arrangement of this work, the deſcription of the new continent begins with North America, becauſe that diviſion contains the moſt important power, that of the United States. The account of their territory ſhall be followed by that of the Spaniſh and Britiſh poſſeſſions in North America. Another diviſion ſhall be reſerved for the Native Tribes, and Unconquered Countries; and this part ſhall cloſe with a brief deſcription of thoſe North American iſlands commonly called the Weſt Indies.

[11] Voyage to California, p. 33.

[12] Pennant, A. Z. ccxxx. Morſe, p. 291, mentions another mountain in the ſame province of volcanic appearance, and 3254 feet high, if the meaſurement be exact.

THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

CHAPTER I.

Historical Geography.

Diviſions.—Boundaries.—Hiſtorical Epochs.

Divisions. THE territories of the United States are claſſed under three grand diviſions, the northern, the middle, and the ſouthern.

The Northern States are Vermont, New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, and the ſmall province of Rhode Iſland. The diſtrict of Main in this quarter belongs to the province of Maſſachuſetts Bay; and its eaſtern boundary, according to Morſe, extends to a river called St. Croix, long 67° W. from London: while on the north what is called Albany ridge, which ſeems an elongation of the Apalachian mountains, divides it from the Britiſh poſſeſſions; but theſe boundaries were conteſted by the Britiſh ſettlers in Nova Scotia. Theſe northern ſtates have been known, ſince the year 1614, by the ſpecial appellation of New England, and are remarkable for the comparative ſmallneſs of the ſubdiviſions, the five provinces being only of ſimilar extent with New York, Pennſylvania, or Virginia.

The Middle States are New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delawar, and the territory on the north-weſt of the Ohio.

The Southern States are Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Tennaſſee, or the country ſouth of Kentucky.

Theſe provinces are ſubdivided into counties, an enumeration of which rather belongs to topography. Divisions.

The eaſtern boundary is the Atlantic Ocean, and the weſtern the great river Miſſiſſippi, which is conſidered as a limit of Spaniſh America. On the north an ideal line, pervading the great lakes of Canada, is continued along the river St. Lawrence to lat. 45°, not far to the ſouth of Montreal; when it paſſes due eaſt, and follows a chain of mountains N. E. and afterwards diverges S. E. to the river St. Croix, which falls into the bay of Fundi. On the ſouth a line, merely arbitrary, about lat. 31°, divides the United States from the Spaniſh dominions of Weſt and Eaſt Florida. Boundaries.

The greateſt extent of the united territory is from eaſt to weſt, in the northern part, where it exceeds 1300 B. miles; and the line along the ſhores of the Atlantic nearly correſponds: but the breadth, from the Canadian lakes to the ſouthern limit, is about 1000 B. miles. The ſquare acres have been computed at 640 millions; and thoſe covered with water being ſuppoſed 51 millions, there will remain 589 millions of acres.

The original population of this extenſive and flouriſhing country conſiſted of ſeveral wild and rude tribes, whoſe denominations and memory have almoſt periſhed, but ſome idea of their manners ſhall be given in deſcribing the native nations. The progreſs of the Engliſh colonies has been already detailed; and there are numerous deſcendants of the Germans, Dutch, and Swedes, who formed conſiderable ſettlements in this region. After the firſt ineffectual colony planted by Ralegh, the moſt important events in the progreſſive geography were the diſcoveries of the noble bays of Cheſapek and Delawar, while the northern lakes, and many other grand features of nature, were diſcloſed by the French ſettlers in Canada. Original Population.

Among the chief hiſtorical epochs of the United States muſt firſt be claſſed their reſpective origins, as above explained. The introduction of tobacco in Virginia, 1616: the intended maſſacre of the Engliſh by a native Wirowanee or chief 1618, and the ſubſequent war: the abolition of the firſt charter, 1624: the ſtruggles againſt the arbitrary diſ- Hiſtorical Epochs.

poſition

Historical Epochs.

poſition of Charles I; the privileges granted by that monarch, and the loyalty of the Virginians, who did not acknowledge the commonwealth till 1651: the inſurrection of Bacon againſt the authority of Charles II; are epochs of Virginian ſtory. The colony in the northern provinces called New England was chiefly founded by the Puritans, and was ſtrengthened by the intolerant ſpirit of archbiſhop Laud. Sectarian ſubdiviſions occaſioned new colonies; and the Pequods, a native tribe, were extirpated. The colonies in the ſouth are of more recent foundation, and preſent ſtill fewer materials for hiſtory.

In ſeveral ſyſtems of geography the original charters and minute events of each ſtate are detailed apart, a plan more reconcileable with topography. The ſeveral ſtreams which conſtitute a large river cannot be delineated in general geography; and far leſs thoſe provincial epochs which rather belong to a prolix hiſtory. It will therefore be ſufficient for the preſent deſign to commemorate the chief epochs of that conteſt which terminated in the independence of the United States. The northern colonies of New England had ſhewn repeated ſymptoms of their original ſpirit of oppoſition to authority. The peace of 1763, after a war of immenſe expence, was crowned by the ceſſion of Canada, and the conſequent annihilation of the French power in North America. Canada was acquired at the price of about fifty times its real value: and the acquiſition of Canada was the loſs of America: ſo incapable is human prudence of prefaging events, and ſo often does Providence effect objects by the very means which men employ to avert them! For the colonies were not only thus delivered from conſtant fear and jealouſy of the French, which bound them to the protection of the parent country, but the vaſt expenditure of that ſplendid and abſurd war occaſioned ſuch an increaſe of taxation, that the country gentlemen of England were eaſily induced to wiſh that a part of it might be borne by the colonies.

1. The Stamp Act, paſſed in 1765, is conſidered as the firſt attempt to raiſe a ſupply of Britiſh revenue from North America; but by the firm oppoſition of the colonies it was repealed in 1766. Similar attempts of a more oblique nature were alike unſucceſsful: and in 1770 the duties were taken off except threepence a pound on tea, which,

which, within the ſpace of half a century, had become a neceſſary of life. HISTORICAL EPOCHS.

2. In 1773 an armed ſchooner ſtationed off Rhode Iſland was burnt by the Americans, the firſt act of open outrage.

3. The tea ſent by the Eaſt India Company to the port of Boſton in New England was thrown into the ſea by ſeventeen perſons in the diſguiſe of American ſavages. This led to what is called the Boſton Port Bill, March 1774, and the act for altering the government of Maſſachuſetts Bay.

4. Deputies met at Philadelphia, 26th October 1774, conſtituting the firſt Congreſs; but independence was not yet aſſerted. Some military manœuvres of the Britiſh general Gage increaſed the ferment; and a provincial congreſs, preſided by Mr. Hancock, aſſembled at Concord, nineteen miles from Boſton.

5. Other acts of the Britiſh parliament, 1775, inflamed the diſcontents; and the civil war commenced with a ſkirmiſh between the Britiſh troops and American militia at Lexington. The battle of Bunker's Hill, or rather Breed's Hill, according to Mr. Morſe, near Charleſtown, was fought on the 17th June 1775. Two days before, the American congreſs had appointed Waſhington commander of their armies; who in March 1776 entered Boſton in triumph.

6. On the 4th of July 1776 the American congreſs publiſhed their ſolemn declaration of independence.

7. On the 30th January 1778 the king of France concluded a treaty with the United States. The ſurrender of general Burgoyne's army, 17th October, 1777, is ſuppoſed to have greatly influenced this alliance.

8. The ſurrender of lord Cornwallis on the 19th October 1781.

9. The treaty of peace, 30th November 1782, by which the independence of the United States was ſolemnly acknowledged, after a ſtruggle of ſeven years; while that between Spain and the United Provinces continued, with ſome intermiſſions, for about ſixty years: but the profuſe expence of modern warfare counterbalances its brevity.

10. The conſtitution of the United States having been found imperfect, a new plan was ſubmitted to the ſeveral ſtates, and received their approbation.

Historical Epochs.

approbation. On the 30th of April 1789 George Waſhington was inaugurated preſident of the United States. The reſignation and death of that illuſtrious man, and the ſhort conteſt with the venal Directory of France, terminated by Bonaparte, who, like all great minds, prefers glory to money, are incidents which are freſh in the memory of every reader.*

CHAPTER II.

Political Geography.

Religion.— Government.— Laws.— Population.— Army.— Navy.— Revenue.— Political Importance.

Religion.

THE religion of the United States of America is the reformed ſyſtem of Chriſtianity; but every ſect is liberally treated with univerſal toleration, or rather equal independence. In Maryland, as the firſt ſettlers were Roman Catholics, ſo that ſyſtem continues to predominate; and in Connecticut the reformed epiſcopal ſcheme is admitted. It would be infinite to enumerate the various denominations, tenets, and new doctrines, which prevail in the ſeveral ſtates; but from the following account of thoſe in Maſſachuſetts and Pennſylvania, ſome judgment may be formed of the whole. Mr. Morſe enumerates the ſects in Maſſachuſetts in the following order:

* Mr. Morſe's political prophecy is a pleaſing ſpeculation on the future condition of the United States. "Here the ſciences and the arts of civilized life are to receive their higheſt improvements: here civil and religious liberty are to flouriſh, unchecked by the cruel hand of civil or eccleſiaſtical tyranny: here genius, aided by all the improvements of former ages, is to be exerted in humanizing mankind, in expanding and enriching their minds with religious and philoſophical knowledge, and in planning and executing a form of government which ſhall involve all the excellencies of former governments with as few of their defects as is conſiſtent with the imperfection of human affairs, and which ſhall be calculated to protect and unite, in a manner conſiſtent with the natural rights of mankind, the largeſt empire that ever exiſted." P. 569.

Denomi-

Denominations.	Number of Congregations.	Suppoſed number of each denomination.
Congregationaliſts,* -	400 -	277,600
Baptiſts, - -	84 -	58,296
Epiſcopalians, -	16 -	11,104
Friends, or Quakers,	10 -	6,940
Preſbyterians, -	4 -	2,776
Univerſaliſts, -	2 -	1,388
Roman Catholics, -	1 -	694
	517	358,798

RELIGION.

In Pennſylvania the places of public worſhip are thus numbered:

The Friends, or Quakers, -	5	The Swediſh Lutherans,	1
The Preſbyterians and Seceders,	6	The Moravians, - - - -	1
The Epiſcopalians, - - -	3	The Baptiſts, - - - - -	1
The German Lutherans, -	2	The Univerſal Baptiſts, -	1
The German Calviniſts, -	1	The Methodiſts, - - -	1
The Catholics, - - - - -	4	The Jews, - - - - -	1

GOVERNMENT.

The government of the United States is veſted, by the conſtitution of 1789, in a preſident and two councils. The preſident is choſen for the term of four years. The ſenate or ſuperior council conſiſts of two ſenators from each ſtate, choſen every ſix years. The houſe of repreſentatives is elected every ſecond year, and is not to contain more than two hundred members, each repreſenting, according to the progreſs of the population, from 33,000 to 50,000 inhabitants. The legiſlative power is veſted in the two councils; while the executive is lodged with the preſident; and a vice preſident is alſo choſen to ſupply his place on any emergency. The preſident commands the army and navy, and may pardon offences, except in caſe of impeachment: he makes treaties, with the conſent of two thirds of the ſenators, who are alſo to adviſe in the appointment of embaſſadors. Particular regulations are formed to prevent any diſtinct ſtate from aſſuming offices which belong

* Theſe are moderate independents, who ſuppoſe that each congregation poſſeſſes complete eccleſiaſtic power, but profeſs ſtrict amity with other congregations.

Government. to the community, ſuch as forming treaties, iſſuing letters of marque, and the like acts of independent ſovereignty, which might endanger the union of the whole. The judicial power is lodged in one ſupreme court, and in ſuch inferior courts as the congreſs may ordain, the judges holding their offices during their good behaviour. Each province has alſo its peculiar government, conſiſting commonly of a ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives, annually choſen.*

Laws. The laws ſeem in general to correſpond with thoſe of England, handed down by their anceſtors. It was to have been expected that a new and ſhort code ſhould have appeared; but as the lawyers are a powerful body, and often choſen ſenators and repreſentatives, it can ſcarcely be ſuppoſed that they ſhould conſent to abridge their profits by a ſimplification of the laws. Different ſtates have alſo particular ordinances and cuſtoms, which are permitted when they do not diſturb the general concord. But a code of laws, to be held in univerſal obſervance, might afford a fair object of ambition. In Europe the code is the moſt brief in the moſt deſpotic ſtates, where the patient dies of an apoplexy; while in the more free ſtates he periſhes by a ſlow conſumption.

Population. The population of theſe extenſive territories was formally eſtimated, by order of congreſs, in 1790, and found to be 3,930,000, excluſive of the inhabitants N. W. of the Ohio, ſuppoſed to be 20,000 It is inferred that the population is doubled every twenty years, in which caſe the population may now amount to about ſix millions.† The number of ſlaves in 1790 was 697,697, and has probably been little increaſed, as many emancipations have taken place, and the ſlave trade is diſcountenanced.

Army. A ſmall military force is maintained for the ſake of ſupporting public order, and upwards of five thouſand were raiſed for three years, for the defence of the frontiers. But a ſtanding army is deemed incompatible

* The federaliſts introduced the preſent government, while the anti-federaliſts do not, like the French, wiſh to aboliſh the detached government of each ſtate, but are merely ſo termed as oppoſitioniſts, and thence more democratic than the former. Imlay, 193.

† Connecticut, the moſt populous province, is ſuppoſed to contain ſixty-five for each ſquare mile.

with the republican government; and the ſtrength of the ſtates is computed from the militia, which is ſtated by Mr. Morſe at 700,000. Yet his mode of reaſoning is vague and inconcluſive; and it would ſeem more agreeable to the uſual rules to eſtimate the utmoſt effective force at 150,000, a number ſufficiently formidable to ſubdue the whole continent, and to ſet foreign invaſion at defiance. Army.

The navy of the United States is ſtill of little conſequence, though a few ſhips were equipped during the recent ſhort diſpute with France. In the courſe of a century or two, it is probable that the maritime ſpirit of their progenitors will be diſplayed, and that the American fleet will rival any in Europe. Navy.

The revenue of the United States is derived from the duties on imports and tonnage, and ſome ſmall taxes. Mr. Morſe ſtates the revenue at little more than two millions of dollars,* and the expences at only 740,000. But the national debt is ſuppoſed to amount to eighty millions of dollars. The war with the Indians, which terminated in 1795, is ſaid to have coſt the ſtates one million of dollars yearly; and was certainly conducted with little ſpirit or deciſion, while in found policy, and at leſs expence, it might have been terminated at one effort. Revenue.

The political importance of the United States will depend, in a great meaſure, upon the individual character, as the government is not ſufficiently ſtrong to uſe coercion even for the general proſperity. The moſt impartial travellers have been impreſſed with regret and aſtoniſhment at the ſpirit of ſelfiſhneſs and avarice, which too univerſally prevails, and which cruſhes or impedes every great or noble exertion. If the ſpirit of a monarchy, according to Monteſquieu, be glory, the ſpirit of a commonwealth, by the ſame authority, is virtue. Yet the latter word having become of dubious acceptation, if not entirely obſolete, it might perhaps be argued, from the example of Holland, Switzerland, and the French Directory, not to mention many republics of antiquity, that the ſpirit of a commonwealth is money; and the exchange is cer- Political Importance.

* The dollar is equal to 4s. 6d. ſterling. Imlay, 189, eſtimates the American debt at ſixteen millions ſterling; and the funds bore an intereſt of about ſix per cent.

Political Importance.

tainly not for the better, as the love of glory, that laſt infirmity of noble minds, is a principle of the moſt large and expanſive nature; ſometimes, as in war, deſtructive; but at others the ſource of every memorable exertion of human genius and induſtry. By the love of money the character becomes degraded, the generous feelings obliterated, the very mind paralyſed; while the love of glory, like the vaſt mechanical force of ſteam, another vapour, often occaſions exertions that ſeem to ſurpaſs human power. Such reflections have unavoidably ariſen to travellers otherwiſe impreſſed with the deepeſt veneration for the new commonwealth. It is however to be hoped and expected that this character will not, like that of the Jews, become indelible; but that, after the fathers have laid up a ſufficient ſtock of wealth, their poſterity will divert their attention to more ſublime purſuits. The war with the Indians, which ought to have impreſſed all America with a deep ſenſe of the power of the ſtates, and which a monarch of common ſpirit would have terminated in one conflict, appears to have been palſied by individual avarice, and a complete negligence of national reputation. The equipment of a few frigates againſt France was alſo a mighty effort; and the ſum allotted for ſix frigates ſcarcely ſupplied three. The moſt candid obſerver, and even the warmeſt admirer of the new republic, muſt allow with regret that its political importance can only be weighed by poſterity. It is to be hoped that the climate and ſoil of America have not that malignant influence over the human mind which have been aſcribed to them by ſome philoſophers, and of which they adduce an example in Spaniſh America, which after the firſt and ſecond generation has not, in three long centuries, produced one man eminent in any department of peace or war, ſcience or art: but that, on the contrary, the new republic may be diſtinguiſhed by names which ſhall rival any of the ancient continent.

CHAPTER III.

Civil Geography.

Manners and Cuſtoms. — Language. — Literature. — Univerſities. — Cities. — Edifices. — Roads. — Inland Navigation. — Manufactures and Commerce.

Manners and Customs.

THE manners and cuſtoms of the inhabitants of the United States may be conceived to differ little from thoſe of their Britiſh anceſtors, except in a few local particularities, to be learned from the common books of travels, which ſometimes explain even the little defects viſible in particular ſtates. Travellers have obſerved, even in Philadelphia, a want of urbanity, and a ſpirit of coldneſs and reſerve, which renders ſociety melancholy. In general the common people ſhew their independent ſpirit by ſurlineſs of behaviour, and a contempt of that intercourſe of trifling civilities, which render life amiable. Caſed in ſelf importance, they ſeem to think that a republican is only another name for an armadillo. Various religious doctrines, ſome of them of very recent invention, ſeem to conſpire with the love of money, or, in other words, conſtant care, to throw an additional gloom over the character. One religious ſect indeed has adopted dancing as a mode of worſhip; but a Frenchman would think it the dance of St. Vitus, and would pronounce their mirth to be the height of melancholy. The gay feſtivals of the ancient republicans, and the cheerful and happy manners of the Swiſs, ſeem equally unknown; and the chief buſineſs ſeems to be to render life as miſerable as poſſible. Muſical concerts are more frequented than the theatre; and in general there is little taſte for thoſe amuſements which are connected with the arts and ſciences. In ſome provinces gaming is ſaid to be too prevalent: but the deepeſt game conſiſts in ſelling unſettled lands at advanced prices: a ſpecies of ſtock-jobbing which, like a Miſſiſſippi ſcheme, ſtimulates the avarice of many.*

* That cruel operation known in the ſouthern ſtates by the name of gouging, is a diſgrace to human nature, and ought to be puniſhed with death.

On

Language. On the termination of the war with England the rancour of a few propoſed the adoption of a new language; and a wit recommended the Hebrew. The Engliſh however remains; but within theſe ten years has become more and more corrupt, ſo that a Britiſh reader ſometimes cannot divine the meaning of an American phraſe. Hence it may be foreſeen that, in the courſe of a century or two, the North American will have become an entirely diſtinct dialect, perhaps as different as the Portugueſe from the Spaniſh.

Literature. The books publiſhed in Britiſh America were chiefly of a religious kind; and thoſe of Mather printed in the end of the 17th century, at Boſton, concerning ſome ſuppoſed witches in that city, are remembered on account of their fanatic cruelty. But before the emancipation Franklin had become a diſtinguiſhed name in letters; and many authors of conſiderable merit have ſince ariſen in the United States. Literary academies publiſh their tranſactions; while magazines and newſpapers contribute to the popular diffuſion of uſeful knowledge. Education ſeems alſo to attract more and more attention, and to be conducted in numerous ſeminaries with the moſt laudable care. In the northern provinces, called New England, ſchools are eſtabliſhed in almoſt every townſhip. Even the Catholics have a college in Maryland.

Univerſities. In New York a college was founded, by an act of the Britiſh parliament 1754, which is now called Columbia College, and is ſaid to be frequented by more than one hundred ſtudents. Naſſau Hall was founded at Prince Town, in New Jerſey, the ſtudents being eſtimated at eighty. In 1782 another foundation, called Waſhington College, aroſe at Cheſtertown in Maryland. Even in Tennaſſee there is a ſociety for promoting uſeful knowledge, which is far more laudable than thoſe eſtabliſhed in ſome countries for promoting uſeleſs knowledge; and there is alſo an academy, with many grammar ſchools. Yale college, in Connecticut, was founded in 1717, and rebuilt in 1750; maintaining about 130 ſtudents.[1] In Pennſylvania there are many literary ſocieties, particularly the American Philoſophical Society, formed in 1769; and which has publiſhed in 1771 and 1786 two volumes of their tranſactions. The Univerſity of Pennſylvania was founded at

[1] Morſe, 358.

Philadelphia

Philadelphia during the war; and being ſince united with the college, has become a reſpectable ſeat of learning. In this province there are alſo Dickenſon College, and Franklin College. Harward Univerſity, in the province of Maſſachuſetts, was founded in 1638, and is generally regarded as the chief foundation in North America. The univerſity of Georgia is at Louiſville; and ſome other provinces boaſt of other colleges, or rather conſiderable academies. Theſe detached inſtitutions ſeem better calculated for the promotion of knowledge, than one or two great univerſities. In New Hampſhire Dartmouth College was founded in 1769, for the inſtruction of the ſavages; but has ſince become an ample endowment for the youth of the northern provinces.* Universities.

With regard to ſize and conſequence the cities of the United States muſt be thus arranged; Philadelphia, New York, Boſton, Baltimore, Charleſtown; but in relation to commerce New York precedes Philadelphia, and Charleſtown ranks above Baltimore. Before proceeding to a brief account of theſe cities it will be proper to deſcribe that of Waſhington, the intended metropolis of the United States. Cities.

" The city of Waſhington, in the territory of Columbia, was ceded by the ſtates of Virginia and Maryland to the United States, and by them eſtabliſhed as the ſeat of their government, after the year 1800. This city, which is now building, ſtands at the junction of the rivers Patomak and the Eaſtern branches, latitude 38° 53′ North, extending nearly four miles up each, and including a tract of territory exceeded, in point of convenience, ſalubrity, and beauty, by none in America; for although the land in general appears level, yet by gentle and gradual ſwellings a variety of elegant proſpects is produced, and a ſufficient deſcent formed for conveying off the water occaſioned by rain. Within the limits of the city are a great number of excellent ſprings; and by digging wells water of the beſt quality may readily be had. Beſides the never failing ſtreams that now run through that territory may alſo be collected for the uſe of the city. The waters of Reedy branch, and of Waſhington.

* It is to be hoped there is now no room for the obſervation of Kalm, that the French in Canada " had a much greater taſte for natural hiſtory, and other parts of literature, than in the Engliſh colonies, where it was every body's ſole care and employment to ſcrape a fortune together, and where the ſciences were held in univerſal contempt." ii. 185.

Tiber

Cities. Tiber creek, may be conveyed to the Preſident's houſe. The ſource of Tiber creek is elevated about 236 feet above the level of the tide. The perpendicular height of the ground on which the Capitol is to ſtand is 78 feet above the level of the tide in Tiber creek: the water of Tiber creek may therefore be conveyed to the Capitol, and after watering that part of the city may be deſtined to other uſeful purpoſes.

" The Eaſtern branch is one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious harbours in America, being ſufficiently deep for the largeſt ſhips for about four miles above its mouth, while the channel lies cloſe along the bank adjoining the city, and affords a large and convenient harbour. The Patomak, although only navigable for ſmall craft, for a conſiderable diſtance from its banks next to the city, (excepting about half a mile above the junction of the rivers,) will nevertheleſs afford a capacious ſummer harbour; as an immenſe number of ſhips may ride in the great channel oppoſite to, and below, the city.

" The ſituation of this metropolis is upon the great poſt road, equidiſtant from the northern and ſouthern extremities of the Union, and nearly ſo from the Atlantic and Pittſburg, upon the beſt navigation, and in the midſt of a commercial territory, probably the richeſt, and commanding the moſt extenſive internal reſources of any in America. It has therefore many advantages to recommend it, as an eligible place for the permanent ſeat of the general government; and as it is likely to be ſpeedily built, and otherwiſe improved by the public-ſpirited enterprize of the people of the United States, and even by foreigners, it may be expected to grow up with a degree of rapidity hitherto unparalleled in the annals of cities.

" The plan of this city appears to contain ſome important improvements upon that of the beſt planned cities in the world, combining in a remarkable degree convenience, regularity, elegance of proſpect, and a free circulation of air. The poſitions for the different public edifices, and for the ſeveral ſquares, and areas of different ſhapes, as they are laid down, were firſt determined on the moſt advantageous ground, commanding the moſt extenſive proſpects, and from their ſituation ſuſceptible of ſuch improvements as either uſe or ornament may hereafter require. The Capitol will be ſituated on a moſt beautiful eminence, commanding

commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a con- Cities.
ſiderable part of the country around. The Preſident's houſe will ſtand on a riſing ground, poſſeſſing a delightful water proſpect, together with a commanding view of the Capitol, and of the moſt material parts of the city. Lines or avenues of direct communication have been deviſed, to connect the moſt diſtant and important objects. Theſe tranſverſe avenues or diagonal ſtreets are laid out on the moſt advantageous ground for proſpect and convenience; and are calculated not only to produce a variety of charming proſpects, but greatly to facilitate the communication throughout the city. North and ſouth lines, interſected by others running due eaſt and weſt, make the diſtribution of the city into ſtreets, ſquares, &c., and thoſe lines have been ſo combined as to meet at certain given points with the divergent avenues, ſo as to form on the ſpaces *firſt determined* the different ſquares or areas. The grand avenues, and ſuch ſtreets as lead immediately to public places, are from 130 to 160 feet wide, and may be conveniently divided into footways, a walk planted with trees on each ſide, and a paved way for carriages. The other ſtreets are from 90 to 110 feet wide.

"In order to execute this plan, Mr. Ellicott drew a meridional line, by celeſtial obſervation, which paſſes through the area intended for the Capitol. This line he croſſed by another, running due eaſt and weſt, which paſſes through the ſame area. Theſe lines were accurately meaſured, and made the baſes on which the whole plan was executed. He ran all the lines by a tranſit inſtrument, and determined the acute angles by actual meaſurement, leaving nothing to the uncertainty of the compaſs."[2]

Mr. Weld obſerves a great defect in the plan, the want of a grand and extenſive quay, the ſhores being crowded with ſmall wooden wharfs and warehouſes; but theſe are only temporary, and no laſting edifice is to be permitted except in brick or ſtone. In the Capitol the national councils are to aſſemble; and ſo grand is the plan, that the expence is eſtimated at a million of dollars, or 225,000 pounds ſterling: The banks of the Patomak preſent inexhauſtible quarries of excellent free-ſtone, harder than that of Portland; and at no great diſtance are

[2] Morſe, 468.

Cities. found ſlate, paving ſtone, and lime ſtone, and, it is ſaid, excellent coal.

Philadelphia. The city of Philadelphia is ſuppoſed to contain about 50,000 inhabitants, and was deſigned by William Penn, the firſt proprietor and founder of the colony called Pennſylvania, in 1683. The form is an oblong ſquare, extending about two miles eaſt and weſt between the rivers Delawar and Schuylkill, or rather on the weſtern bank of the former river. This city is neatly conſtructed, the chief ſtreets being 100 feet in breadth, paved with pebbles, and the foot paths with brick. They are chiefly in a ſtrait line, a form not approved by lovers of the pictureſque; but in a city the chief objects are convenience, and a ſhort acceſs from one part to another. The charter of incorporation, granted by Penn in 1701, was ſingularly ariſtocratic, being copied from that of Briſtol in England; but the general aſſembly of the province, in 1789, formed a liberal plan; and the government of the city, the priſons, &c. may now be regarded as ſurpaſſing any in the world. There are many humane inſtitutions, and a large public library. Amidſt this deſerved praiſe, it is truly ſurpriſing that one ſtreet called Water-ſtreet ſhould remain a ſource of filth and contagion, eſpecially as it was in this ſtreet that the noted yellow fever firſt appeared in 1793. The amiable and tolerant character of the Quakers differed widely from that of the fanatic ſettlers in New England: at preſent they do not exceed one fourth part of the inhabitants; and their averſion to the elegancies and luxuries of life is overcome by the wiſhes of the majority. Gay equipages are not rare in the ſtreets of Philadelphia, and the theatre begins to be frequented. The expence of labour and domeſtic economy was, about five or ſix years ago, conſidered as higher in Philadelphia, and indeed in moſt parts of the United States, than in England; but at preſent it is probably far lower. The general uſe of ſalted proviſion muſt be injurious to health; and it is inconceivable why this cuſtom ſhould have continued ſo long.

New York. New York, the capital of the province of the ſame name, is ſituated on a promontory at the mouth of Hudſon river, a noble and pictureſque ſtream. The number of inhabitants in 1790 was 33,131, this city being about two miles in length and four in circumference. It was

greatly injured during the war, but has ſince been enlarged and improved. The chief edifice is the Federal Hall, a neat building of Grecian architecture, in which Waſhington was inſtalled preſident of the United States. In commerce, New York is conſidered as the chief city in North America, the harbour admitting ſhips of any burden. It is alſo the gayeſt city, and is thought to exceed Charleſtown in South Carolina, which laſt is however a rival in hoſpitality and ſocial pleaſures. In public inſtitutions for the promotion of education, the arts, ſciences, &c. it however appears, by Mr. Morſe's account, to be deficient. Cities.

Boſton, the capital of the province of Maſſachuſetts, and of all theſe northern provinces called New England, was regarded by Mr. Burke as the chief city in North America; and he ſays that, from Chriſtmas 1747 to Chriſtmas 1748, five hundred veſſels cleared from this port only, for foreign trade, and 430 were entered inwards; not to mention coaſting and fiſhing veſſels, ſuppoſed to equal the others in number.[3] He conſiders the people of New England as the Dutch of America, being carriers for all the colonies of North America and the Weſt Indies. The trade of Boſton has however ſince declined, though ſtill far from inconſiderable. This city is ſuppoſed to contain about 20,000 inhabitants. The harbour on a large bay is excellent, and capacious enough to receive five hundred ſhips at anchor; with a narrow entrance, commanded by a caſtle. There is a pier about 600 yards in length; and the harbour is interſperſed with about forty iſlands, which afford excellent grain and paſturage. This city alſo ſuffered conſiderably by the war, but has been improved, and the public buildings are, in that part of the world, deemed elegant. Boſton does not exceed two miles in length, being of a circular form; and on the weſt is the mall or public walk, planted with rows of trees. On the ſame ſide is Beacon hill, on which a monument has been erected, commemorating ſome of the moſt important events of the war. The fanatical ſpirit of this city ſeems gradually to ſubſide; and Mr. Burke obſerves, after narrating the witchcraft deluſion, 1692, in which ſo many innocent people periſhed by the bigotry of two clergymen called Encreaſe and Cotton Mather, "that the people there are now grown ſomewhat like the reſt of man- Boſton.

[3] Account of the European Settlements in America, 4th edit. 1765. vol. ii. p. 172.

Cities. kind in their manners, and have much abated of their perſecuting ſpirit." This city is even already ranked by ſome among the moſt pleaſing and ſociable in the United States.

Baltimore. Baltimore in Maryland ſtands on the north ſide of the river Patapſco, which may rather be regarded as a creek of the great bay of Cheſapek, and has rapidly riſen to its preſent conſequence. The ſituation is rather low, but it has been rendered by art tolerably ſalubrious. In 1790 the number of inhabitants was 13,503.

Charleſtown. Charleſtown, in South Carolina, is ſituated at the confluence of Aſhley and Cooper rivers, which are large and navigable, and open into a capacious eſtuary. The ſituation is eſteemed remarkably healthy, though low, being refreſhed by the ſea breezes. In 1791 there were 16,359 inhabitants, of whom 7684 were ſlaves. This city is celebrated for eaſy and ſocial manners.

Such are the principal cities of the United States; and to enumerate the others would be alike tedious and temporary; as, amidſt new foundations and improvements, great changes often happen in their relative conſequence.

Edifices. The chief edifices are commonly the halls in which the ſtates of each province aſſemble. The Capitol, and the houſe of the preſident, in the new metropolis, deſigned, it is believed, as well as the plan of the city, by L'Enfant, are conſidered as edifices of the moſt ſplendid promiſe.

Inland Navigation. Little occaſion has hitherto ariſen for opening any canals for inland navigation, as the numerous great rivers have been found ſufficient for the purpoſes of intercourſe. No country in the world can boaſt of ſuperior means of inland commerce by the great river Miſſouri, and many other navigable ſtreams, not to mention lakes of prodigious extent. A canal, it is believed, is now opened between the rivers Shuylkil and Suſquehana, and others are projected. The roads alſo begin to be improved, and ſeveral bridges have been erected, ſome of which in timber are of conſiderable extent.

Manufactures. The manufactures of the United States may moſtly be conſidered as ſtill in their infancy, as they were accuſtomed to be ſupplied by Great Britain; and though the bond of authority be broken, the commercial

chains remain. The chief manufactures are tanned leather, and dreſſed ſkins; various common works in iron and in wood; ſhips, for which Boſton was celebrated; with ſeveral articles of machinery and huſbandry. Cables, ſailcloth, cordage, twine, packthread, bricks, tiles, and pottery, paper of all kinds, hats, ſugars, ſnuff, gunpowder, are alſo American manufactures; with ſome utenſils in copper, braſs, and tin; clocks, and mathematical machines, and carriages of all deſcriptions. The domeſtic manufactures, in coarſe cloths, ſerges, flannels, cotton and linen goods of ſeveral ſorts, not only ſuffice for the families, but are ſometimes ſold, and even exported; and in moſt diſtricts a great part of the dreſs is the product of domeſtic induſtry. Good wines have been made by French ſettlers on the Ohio from various wild grapes, particularly the black and fox, which grow ſpontaneouſly in theſe regions. The maple ſugar is prepared in the northern and middle ſtates, and is deemed by many equal to that from the cane. The recent commotions in Europe have probably driven many able manufacturers to America, where machinery is particularly valuable, as the price of labour is ſo exorbitant. MANUFACTURES.

The chief commerce of the United States is ſtill centered in Britiſh ports, though France had a conſiderable ſhare; and ſome trade be alſo carried on with Spain, Portugal, Holland, and the Baltic. That with the Eaſt Indies and Africa is inconſiderable. The exports in 1792 amounted to more than twenty-one millions of dollars; the chief articles being pot and pearl aſhes, cotton, coffee, flax, dried and pickled fiſh, whale oil and whale bone, wheat, Indian corn, indigo, ſheep, hogs, molaſſes, tar, turpentine, American rum, tobacco, furs, ſtaves, ſhingles, planks, boards, and timber in general. The tonnage was in 1789 eſtimated at 297,468, and in 1798 at 800,000 tons, navigated by near 50,000 ſeamen. The bank of Philadelphia was founded in 1787; and ſeems to have been ſucceſsful: it is alſo called the Bank of the United States, the capital ſtock being ten millions of dollars. The coinage conſiſts of eagles in gold, with a half and quarter, the eagle being valued at ten dollars or two pounds five ſhillings ſterling, thus exceeding by about one quarter the golden mohur of Hindoſtan. In ſilver, beſides the dollar, with the half and quarter, there are diſmes or tenths of a dollar, Commerce.

Manufactures. dollar, worth nearly ſixpence Engliſh, and half diſmes or twentieths. The cent in copper is equal to the hundredth part of a dollar, or little more than the Engliſh halfpenny; while the half cent nearly correſponds with the farthing.

CHAPTER IV.

Natural Geography.

Climate and Seaſons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Swamps.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Mineral Waters.—Natural Curioſities.

Climate. THE climate of the United territories, as already mentioned, is chiefly remarkable for ſudden tranſitions from heat to cold, and the contrary. The wind from the north-weſt is violently cold, as it paſſes a wide expanſe of the frozen continent. In the plains on the eaſt of Apalachian chain the ſummer heats are immoderate; and in ſome places even ice will not preſerve poultry or fiſh from putrefaction. Towards the mountains the climate is ſalutary even in the ſouthern ſtates, as is evinced by the bloom of the damſels in the back ſettlements of Virginia. In the northern ſtates the winter is longer and more ſevere than in England, but the ſummer heat more intenſe. A N. E. wind commonly attends rain, while on the weſt ſide of the Apalachian mountains a S. W. has that effect. In Georgia the winter is very mild, ſnow being ſeldom ſeen, and the eaſt wind is there the warmeſt.

This exceſſive heat of the plains muſt be regarded as one cauſe of that fatal peſtilential malady called the yellow fever, which firſt appeared at Philadelphia in 1793, and has ſince too frequently repeated its ravages in various cities of the common wealth. Several medical men have treated this ſubject with conſiderable care and ability, but do not ſeem to have examined

amined whether any ſimilar diſeaſe was before known on the continent, and what method of cure was practiſed. Alzate, in his fugitive remarks on the natural hiſtory of Mexico, has mentioned an epidemical diſtemper, called in the Mexican language *matlazahualt;* but at Vera Cruz, Carthagena, and other places, known by the name of the black vomit, which is the chief ſcourge of the kingdom of Mexico.[1] In 1736 and 1737 it ſwept away above one third of the inhabitants of the capital; and in 1761 and 1762 it almoſt depopulated the kingdom. Alzate thinks that this diſorder proceeds from the bile mixing with the blood, the patient often bleeding at the noſe and mouth; and a relapſe is extremely dangerous. He diſſuades purgatives and bleeding, as when uſed for other diſorders they ſuperinduce the *matlazahualt*, which in Mexico always begun among the Indians, and was chiefly confined to them. May not this diſorder be as much allied with the yellow fever as the black and yellow jaundice? The Spaniſh phyſicians might at any rate be conſulted, as they have long been accuſtomed to the American maladies; and it is hoped that this hint may not be unſubſervient to the intereſts of humanity. Climate.

The ſeaſons in the United States generally correſpond with thoſe in Europe, but not with the equality to be expected on a continent; as, even during the ſummer heats, ſingle days will occur which require the warmth of a fire. The latitude of Labrador correſponds with that of Stockholm, and that of Canada with France, but what a wide difference in the temperature! Even the eſtuary of the Delawar is generally frozen for ſix weeks every winter. Nor does the weſtern coaſt of North America ſeem warmer than the eaſtern. The numerous foreſts, and wide expanſes of freſh water, perhaps contribute to this comparative coldneſs of the climate, which may gradually yield to the progreſs of population and induſtry. Seaſons.

The face of theſe extenſive territories is not ſo minutely diverſified as might have been expected, the features of nature being here on a larger and more uniform ſcale than in Europe. Nor are there any ſcenes of claſſical or hiſtorical reminiſcence, which tranſport the mind to remote Face of the Country.

[1] D'Autroche, Voyage to California, p. 79. Ulloa, liv. iv. c. vi. ſays that the black vomit was not known till 1740, and is thought to have been imported by the galleons from Manilla.

centuries,

Face of the Country.

centuries, and impart a crowd of relative ideas. The abundance of timber, and the diverſity of the foliage, contribute greatly to enrich the landſcape; but it is here reputed a weed, and the planter ſeldom ſpares trees near his habitation, as the roots having no great room to ſpread or penetrate, they would be dangerous during a violent wind. "What a beautiful country, not diſgraced by a ſingle tree," is an idea purely American. The landſcape is leſs ennobled by lofty mountains than by rivers of great magnitude; and is frequently injured by the barren aſpect of large fields, which have been exhauſted by the culture of tobacco, and which ſcarcely produce a weed or a pile of graſs. The northern provinces called New England are generally hilly, as they approach the ſkirts of the Apalachian chain, which has, by no unfit ſimilitude, been called the ſpine of the United territory. The vales in theſe northern regions are thickly clothed with wood, and often pervaded by conſiderable rivers; and many romantic caſcades are formed by rivulets falling from the rocks, while towards the ſhore the land is level and ſandy. In Virginia, a central ſtate, the Blue Mountains, and other ridges of the Apalachian, add great charms and variety to the proſpect, which is further enlivened by many beautiful plants and birds, particularly the humming bird, ſucking the honey of various flowers, and rapidly glancing in the ſun its indeſcribable hues of green, purple, and gold. Here a plain from 150 to 200 miles in breadth, reaching from the mountains to the ſea, is ſtudded with the villas of rich proprietors, the ancient hoſpitable country gentlemen of the United States. Similar levels appear in the Carolinas and Georgia. Beyond the Apalachian ridges extends another rich plain of amazing ſize, pervaded by the muddy waves of the Miſſiſſippi, which does not appear to be table land, but on nearly the ſame level with the eaſtern plain. In Kentucky the ſurface is agreeably waved with gentle ſwells, repoſing on a vaſt bed of limeſtone; and a track of about twenty miles along the Ohio is broken into ſmall hills and narrow vales.

Soil.

The ſoil, though of various deſcriptions, is generally fertile, often, on the eaſt of the Blue Mountains, a rich brown loamy earth, ſometimes a yellowiſh clay, which becomes more and more ſandy towards the ſea. Sometimes there are conſiderable marſhes, and what are called ſalt meadows,

meadows, and ſpots called barrens, which, even in the original foreſts, are found to be bare of trees for a conſiderable ſpace.* On the weſt of the Apalachian chain the ſoil is alſo generally excellent; and in Kentucky ſome ſpots are deemed too rich for wheat, but the product may amount to ſixty buſhels an acre: and about ſix feet below the ſurface there is commonly a bed of limeſtone. The vales in the northern ſtates are alſo very productive. Soil.

In agriculture the Americans are well ſkilled, and are eager to adopt the advantages of Engliſh experience. The late great preſident Waſhington was himſelf an excellent farmer; and it is computed that at leaſt three parts in four of the inhabitants of the United States are employed in agriculture. This free and vigorous yeomanry may well be regarded as the chief glory of any ſtate; and commerce will import ſufficient opulence to enable them to promote every poſſible improvement. Agriculture particularly flouriſhes in New England and Pennſylvania. The practice of land-jobbing, and other tendencies to monopoly, ought carefully to be repreſſed: ſuch however is the progreſs of agriculture, that the ſtates are enabled, almoſt yearly, to increaſe the exportation of grain and flour. In 1786 Pennſylvania exported 150,000 barrels of flour; in 1789 no leſs than 369,618 barrels. Among the numerous products are wheat, rye, barley, buck wheat, oats, beans, peaſe, and maize, the laſt a native grain. In Virginia ſome rice is cultivated, and is found to ſucceed well on the banks of the Ohio. The German ſpelt, a valuable product, is alſo ſown in Pennſylvania; and in ſeveral provinces hemp and flax are conſiderable objects of agriculture. The culture of turnips, and ſome other vegetables common on Engliſh farms, ſeems as yet to draw little attention; but many cultivated graſſes are ſown, and in Virginia there are lucern, cinquefoil, burnet, red, white, and yellow clover, &c. That invaluable plant the potatoe is a native of the country; and there is a ſort called groundnuts, which ſome particularly reliſh. There are ſeveral kinds of melon and cucumber. Hops are alſo cultivated: and it is almoſt unneceſſary to add tobacco, a well known product of Virginia, which opulent province bears a conſiderable reſemblance in culture and manners to our Weſt Indian ſettlements. Or- Agriculture.

* Pine barrens produce pines only.

Agriculture. chards are favourite objects; and cyder is a common beverage in the northern and middle ſtates. The excellent Newtown apple grows near New York. Peaches are greatly cultivated in Virginia, where the peach brandy is noted; and there are alſo excellent apricots and nectarines.

Rivers. The chief rivers of the United States have already been deſcribed in the brief general view of North America; but a few may be here mentioned of a more confined courſe, and more particularly belonging to the United territory. That great weſtern boundary the Miſſiſſippi, beſides the celebrated Ohio, pervading the centre of the United territory from eaſt to weſt, receives many other conſiderable ſtreams, among which is the Illinoa, or in the French mode Illinois, which waters extenſive and fertile meadows. More northern ſtreams, flowing into the Miſſiſſippi are the Uiſconſin, the Chipawy, and the river St. Croix. The noble ſtream of the Ohio receives from the north the Great and Little Miami, and the Wabaſh: from the ſouth the Great Kennaway, the Kentucky, the Green River, and above all the Cumberland and the Tennaſſee; while the country on the weſt of Georgia is watered by ſeveral ſtreams which join the gulf of Mexico.

Among the numerous rivers which flow, on the eaſt, into the Atlantic, may be mentioned the limitary ſtream of St. Croix, the Penabſcot, the Kennebec, the Saco, the Merimac, the Connecticut, a long and diſtinguiſhed ſtream, which gives name to the province, but which yields in length and grandeur to the Hudſon river, which riſing from ſeveral lakes in the northern parts of New York, flows into the ocean near the flouriſhing city of that name. The river Delawar, which waſhes Philadelphia, being joined by numerous ſtreams, is more remarkable for its width than for the length of its courſe. The Suſquehanna is diſtinguiſhed by both theſe attributes, and after a long and circuitous progreſs forms the chief contributary ſtream to the bay of Cheſapek; which alſo receives the Patomak and the Fluvanna, or James River. The Patomak is not only diſtinguiſhed as the ſeat of the new capital, but for its irruption through the Blue Ridge of the Apalachian Mountains, being firſt joined by the Shenandoa, a conſiderable river from the ſouth. The range however conſiſts of broken rocks, and the ſcene yields greatly in

Patomak.

ſublimity to the paſſage of the Lauricocha or falſe Maranon, through the Andes, worn into perpendicular walls of ſtupendous height and length. Further to the ſouth the chief rivers flow W. into the Ohio. But the Black water and Staunton join the Roanok inlet: and Pamlico ſound receives a river of the ſame name. That of cape Fear, the Pedee, the Santee, the Savannah, and the Altamaha of Georgia, cloſe the liſt of the chief rivers of the United States. Rivers.

Beſides the great lakes which form the northern boundary, and which have been already mentioned in the general deſcription of North America, there are ſome conſiderable lakes in the northern parts of the United territory. Thoſe on the weſt have been little explored. The ſmall lakes called Cedar, Little Winnipeg, and Leech, ſupply the ſources of the Miſſiſſippi. On the eaſt the moſt important lake is that of Champlain, rather reſembling a wide river, which flows into that of St. Lawrence, and ſupplies an eaſy communication with Canada. The Champlain is the boundary between the ſtates of New York and Vermont, being in length about 75 g. miles, while the breadth ſeldom exceeds four or five; and it terminates in the broad river called Chambly or Richlieu, which falls within the limits of Canada. Lake George, at the ſouthern extremity of Champlain, approaches within a few miles of the Hudſon river, ſo that a canal might be opened at no great expence. Beſides many ſmall lakes S. W. of the Champlain, there are ſeveral other lakes in the ſame direction, and alſo in the province of New York, as the Oneida, the Cayuga, and Sennaka. Lakes. Champlain.

The chief mountains have been likewiſe deſcribed in the general view of North America. The White and Green mountains in the northern provinces, and the Land's Height, which bounds the diſtrict of Main, may be regarded as elongations of the Apalachian chain, to which alſo belong the Savage and Bald mountains, and the Allegany, ſo called from another name of the river Ohio, (ſometimes extended to the whole Apalachian,) with many other local denominations, the Blue mountains being the moſt general term for the exterior ridge towards the ocean.* Mountains.

Aboriginal

* The component parts of the White Mountains ſeem to be ſlate, petroſilex, and grey quartz, or perhaps granite. See Morſe, p. 293. The Blue Mountains are ſometimes inaccurately called the South mountains, while the Apalachian chain is call'd the North mountain, and, from an In-

Forests. Aboriginal forefts are fo numerous throughout the United territory, that none feem to be particularly diftinguifhed. There does not appear to exift, on the whole continent of America, any of thofe fandy deferts which are fo remarkable in Afia and Africa. There is, on the contrary, an exuberance of water even in the moft torrid regions; which might be added as a proof of the theory that this continent has more recently emerged. Even the volcanoes in South America often pour down torrents of water and mud, and no where occur the fandy ruins of plains, after the fertile foil has been totally loft, or the rocky fkeletons of ancient mountains. The large tract in the eaftern part of Virginia and North Carolina, called the Difmal Swamp, occupies about 150,000 acres; but it is entirely covered with trees, juniper and cypreſs on the more moift parts, and on the drier white and red oaks, and a variety of pines.[2] Thefe trees attain a prodigious fize; and among them there is often thick bruſhwood, fo as to render the fwamp impervious, while other forefts in North America are commonly free from underwood. Cane reeds, and tall rich grafs, foon fatten cattle of the vicinity, which are taught to return to the farms of their own accord. In this fwampy foreft bears, wolves, deer, and other wild animals abound; and ſtories are told of children having been loft, who have been feen, after many years, in a wild ſtate of nature. Some parts are fo dry as to bear a horfe, while fome are overflowed, and others fo miry that a man would ſink up to the neck. A canal has been led through it; and even in the dry parts water of the colour of brandy, as is fuppofed from the roots of the junipers, guſhed in at the depth of three feet. In the northern part the timber fupplies an article of trade, while in the fouthern rice is found to profper; and in the neighbourhood none of thefe diſeaſes are known which haunt other marſhy ſituations.*

Difmal Swamp.

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dian term, the Endleſs mountains. It appears from repeated paſſages of Kalm that they chiefly conſiſt of what may be called calcareous granite, or mingled limeſtone, quartz, and mica. The river Hudſon cuts directly acroſs the high ridge of mountains. Kalm, p. 77.

[2] Weld, i. 179.

* On the N. E. of the Cheſapek is another of great extent called Cedar Swamp; and ſome other large ſwamps occur in the ſouthern ſtates.

Georgia preſents a ſingular marſh, or in the wet ſeaſon a lake, called Ekanſanoko, by others Ouaquaſenoga,* in the S. E. extremity of the province. This marſhy lake is about 300 miles in circumference, and contains ſeveral large and fertile iſles, one of which is repreſented by the Creek Indians as a kind of paradiſe, inhabited by a peculiar race, whoſe women are incomparably beautiful, and are called by them daughters of the ſun. Theſe iſlanders are ſaid to be a remnant of an ancient tribe, nearly exterminated by the Creeks. Such events may not have been uncommon among ſavage tribes; and the more induſtrious people who erected the noted forts may have been paſſing, like the Mexicans, to a comparative ſtate of civilization, when an unhappy defeat, by more ſavage tribes extinguiſhed their name and power. That the natives have no memory of ſuch tranſactions is not matter of wonder, for their traditions can ſcarcely exceed a century or two at the utmoſt. Swamp.

A country that experiences on one frontier the ſeverity of the Canadian winters, and on the other baſks in the full radiance of the Weſt Indian ſummers, may naturally be expected to contain no ſmall variety of native plants. So numerous and important indeed are they, as to render it impoſſible in a work not devoted particularly to the ſubject to notice them as they deſerve; we muſt therefore be contented with the ſelection of ſuch alone as, from their utility and beauty, have the ſtrongeſt claim to our attention. Botany.

The botany of theſe ſtates, including the Floridas, or, in other words, of the whole region extending eaſtward from the Miſſiſſippi to the ocean, and ſouthward from the river St. Lawrence with its lakes to the gulf of Mexico, may be divided into thoſe vegetables which are common to the whole country, and thoſe that occupy only particular parts.

The moſt generally diffuſed ſpecies among the timber trees are the willow-leaved oak (quercus phellos) growing in the ſwamps; the cheſtnut oak (q. prinos), which in the ſouthern ſtates attains an enormous ſize, and is almoſt as valuable for its ſweet farinaceous acorns as for its wood; the white oak; the red and the black. Next to theſe in rank

* Such long and barbarous appellatives, derived from ſavages who have a word of fourteen ſyllables to expreſs the number *three*, are not unfrequent in North American geography, and ought to be abbreviated, and reduced to a fixed orthography, by ſome learned ſociety.

are

Botany. are two kinds of walnut, the black, and the white or the hiccory, eſteemed for its oily nuts. The cheſtnut and beech of Europe are alſo found abundantly in the American foreſts. The tulip tree and ſaſſafras laurel, more impatient of cold than the preceding, appear as ſhrubs on the Canadian borders, riſe into trees in the midland ſtates, and on the warm banks of the Altamaha attain the full perfection of ſtatelineſs and beauty. The ſugar maple, on the contrary, is ſeen only on the northern ſides of the hills in the ſouthern ſtates, and increaſes both in ſize and frequency in the more bracing climate of the New England provinces. The ſweet gum tree (liquidambar ſtyraciflua), the iron wood (carpinus oſtrya), the nettle tree (celtis occidentalis), the American elm, the black poplar, and the taccamahacca, appear in every ſtate of the Union wherever the ſoil is ſuitable, without being much affected by variety of climate. The light ſandy tracts, both wet and dry, are principally inhabited by the important and uſeful family of pines; of theſe the chief ſpecies are the Pennſylvanian fir, the common and the hemlock ſpruce fir; the black, the white, and the Weymouth pine; and the larch: nearly allied to which are the arbor vitæ, and the juniperus virginiana, the red cedar of America. The ſmaller trees and ſhrubs that are diſperſed in all parts of the United States, among a multitude of others, conſiſt of the following; the fringe tree (chionanthus), the red maple, the ſumach and poiſon oak (rhus radicans), the red mulberry, the perſimmon plum, the robinia pſeudacacia, and the triple-thorned acacia (gleditſia triacantha).

Such of the common herbaceous plants and low ſhrubs as are beſt known to the generality of readers from their introduction into the gardens of Great Britain are the collinſonia, uſed by the Indians againſt the bite of the rattleſnake, ſeveral gay ſpecies of phlox, the thornapple, the Pennſylvanian lily and golden martagon, the biennial oenothera, with many ſpecies of aſter, monarda, and rudbeckia.

The mountainous ridges are not ſufficiently high to be rich in alpine plants; their climate however is ſenſibly cooler than that of the plains, on which account thoſe of the ſouth are inhabited by the vegetables of Pennſylvania and the northern ſtates, while the highlands of theſe abound in the plants of Canada.

But

But the glories of the American flora are principally confined to Virginia and the ſouthern ſtates; it is here that the unfading verdure of the wide ſavannas, the ſolemn magnificence of the primeval foreſts, and the wild exuberance of the ſteaming ſwamps, offer to the aſtoniſhed admiration of the botaniſt every thing that by colour, by fragrance, and by form, can delight the ſenſes and fix the attention. Botany.

Among the vegetables that inhabit the low ſhores of the Floridas, Georgia, and South Carolina, may be diſtinguiſhed the mangrove tree, the only ſhrubby plant that can flouriſh in ſaltwater, the fragrant and ſnowy-flowered pancratium of Carolina, and the ſplendid lobelia cardinalis.

The low ridges of calcareous ſoil running parallel with the rivers, and riſing from the level ſavannas into extenſive lawns and ſwelling hills, are generally covered with open or entangled woods, except where they have been converted into tillage by the induſtry of the inhabitants. In theſe rich tracts grow the lofty palmetto, the evergreen oak, the ſweet bay (laurus borbonia), the benzoe laurel, the common laurel, the wide ſhading broom pine, and the red cedar. The ſtrait ſilvery columns of the papaw fig, riſing to the height of twenty feet, and crowned by a canopy of broad ſinuated leaves, form a ſtriking feature in this delicious ſcenery; while the golden fruit and fragrant bloſſoms of the orange, here realize the ancient traditions of the groves of the Heſperides. Superior however to all theſe is the towering magnificence of the great magnolia: in this rich marly ſoil it riſes above a hundred feet, with a perfectly erect trunk, ſupporting a ſhady conical head of dark green foliage: from the centre of the coronets of leaves that terminate the branches expands a large roſe-ſhaped bloſſom of pure white, which is ſucceeded by a crimſon cone, containing the ſeeds of a beautiful coral red colour, and theſe falling from their cells remain for ſeveral days ſuſpended from the ſeed-veſſel by a ſilky thread, ſix inches or more in length, ſo that whether in this ſtate or in bloſſom it is ſecond to none for grandeur and beauty.

The level plains by the ſides of rivers, and therefore generally in a flooded ſtate during the whole rainy ſeaſon, are called ſavannas. The trees that grow upon them are of the aquatic kind, ſuch as magnolia glauca,

Botany. glauca, or beaver tree, American olive, and gordonia lafianthus, filvered over with fragrant bloffoms: thefe are generally either fingle, or grouped together into fmall open groves, while the larger part of the meadow is overgrown with long fucculent herbage, intermixed with fhrubs and plants; the candleberry myrtle, with numerous fpecies of azaleas, kalmias, andromedas, and rhododendrons, arranged by the hand of nature into thickets and fhrubberies, entwined and over-arched by the crimfon granadilla, or the fantaftic clitoria, here difplay their inimitable beauties in full luxuriance. The fides of the pools and the fhallow plafhes are adorned by the bright cærulean flowers of the ixia, the golden bloffoms of the canna lutea, and the rofy tufts of the hydrangia, while the edges of the groves, and the dubious boundaries of the favannas, rifing imperceptibly towards the forefts, are fringed by innumerable gay varieties of the phlox, by the fhrinking fenfitive plant, the irritable dionæa, the glowing amaryllis atamafco, and the impenetrable ranks of the royal palmetto (yucca glorioſa).

The fwamps are at all times, even in the height of fummer, for the moft part under water, and are diftinguifhed from the reft of the country by the crowded ftems of the cane (arundo gigantea), the light foliage of the tupelo tree (nyffa aquatica), the taccamahacca, the fringe tree, and the white cedar (cupreffus diſticha); this laft is perhaps the moft picturefque tree in all America: four or five enormous buttreffes or rude pillars rife from the ground, and unite in a kind of arch at the height of about feven feet, and from this centre there fprings a ftrait column eighty or ninety feet high, without a branch: it then divides into a flat umbrella-fhaped top, covered with finely divided leaves of the moft delicate green. This platform is the fecure abode of the eagle and the crane; and the oily feeds contained in its cones are the favourite repaft of the parroquets that are conftantly fluttering around.

Hundreds more of intereſting plants yet remain, and we might go on to deſcribe with unabated pleaſure the profuſion of various coloured lupines and dwarf palmettos that relieve the duſky hue of the pine foreſts in which they live; the wild vines, the gourds, the bignonias, and other climbers that diſplay to the ſun their fruits and glowing bloſſoms above the ſummits of the talleſt trees; we might deſcribe the tent-like ſhade of

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the platanus, the regal ſplendour of the crimſon-flowered horſe-cheſtnut, and the humbler, leſs obtruſive, yet not leſs exquiſite beauties of the meadia, the ſpigelia (Indian pink), and gaura, but theſe our limits will not admit; it is enough for the preſent purpoſe to have ſketched ſome of the characteriſtic features in the botany of a country, the moſt acceſſible of all the warmer climates to the inveſtigations of European ſcience. Botany.

The domeſtic zoology of the United States nearly correſponds with that of the parent country, with ſome few ſhades of difference in ſize and colour. Among the larger wild animals may be mentioned the biſon, large herds of which uſed to be ſeen near the Miſſiſſippi, and they were once very numerous in the weſtern parts of Virginia and Pennſylvania. The muſk bull and cow only appear in the more weſtern regions, beyond the Miſſiſſippi. Among the animals now loſt are claſſed the mammoth, whoſe enormous bones are particularly found near the ſalt ſprings upon the Ohio; and teeth of the hippopotamus are ſaid to have been dug up in Long Iſland: but the labours of a late French naturaliſt have evinced that ſuch remains often belong to animals long ſince extirpated, and of which he has traced more than twenty kinds. The mammoth of America, though armed with tuſks of ivory, has been ſuppoſed to be even five or ſix times larger than the elephant; but the bones are probably the ſame with thoſe of the ſuppoſed elephant found in Siberia. The mooſe deer are become extremely rare, and will probably in no long time be utterly extirpated, as the wolf and boar have been in Britain. The black mooſe deer are ſaid to have been ſometimes twelve feet in height, while the ſpecies called the grey ſeldom exceed the height of a horſe. Both have large palmated horns, weighing thirty or forty pounds. Mr. Pennant mentions a pair that weighed fifty-ſix pounds, the length being thirty-two inches.[3] The mooſe deer is only a large ſpecies of the elk, and is found in the northern parts of the United States; while the rein deer inhabits the northern regions of Britiſh America. The American ſtag rather exceeds the European in ſize, and is ſeen in great numbers feeding in the rich ſavannas of the Zoology.

[3] A. Z. i. 1°.

Zoology. Miſſouri and Miſſiſſippi, where there are alſo herds of that kind called the Virginian deer.

In the northern ſtates are two kinds of bears, both black; but that carnivorous animal called the ranging bear is found in all the ſtates, as is the wolf. Several kinds of foxes are alſo ſeen: and the wolverine ſeems a kind of bear. The animal moſt dreaded is the catamount, or cat of the mountains, found in the northern and middle ſtates, and is probably the ſame with the *puma* of Pennant, which he ſays is ſometimes in North America called the panther. One killed in New Hampſhire was ſix feet in length, and the tail three; but the length of the leg did not exceed twelve inches. The *cougar* is about five ſeet in length, and in the ſouthern ſtates is called the tiger: but it is well known that the ferocious animals of the new continent are totally different from thoſe of the old, there being neither lions, tigers, leopards, nor panthers, in the whole extent of America. A German miſſionary,[4] who reſided twenty-two years in Paraguay, deſcribes the tiger of that country as marked with black ſpots, ſometimes on a whitiſh, ſometimes on a yellowiſh ground; and ſays that as the lions of Africa far exceed thoſe of Paraguay, ſo the African tigers greatly yield in ſize to the American; which may be juſt, as the royal tiger ſeems peculiar to Aſia. But he adds that he has ſeen the ſkin of a tiger three ells and two inches in length, or equal to that of a large ox. This animal eaſily carries off a horſe or an ox; and ſeems to exceed in ſize any American beaſt of prey admitted in the ſyſtem of Buffon, whoſe fondneſs for theories is often to be lamented; and his *jaguar*, or American tiger, ſeems only a diminutive ſpecies.*

The lynx, the ocelot, and the margay, are ſmaller beaſts of prey, of the cat kind. Theſe and many other animals ſupply furs. The beaver is well known from the fur, and the ſingular formation of his cabin, built in ponds for the ſake of ſecurity; but he ſeems to feed on the twigs of trees, and not on fiſh, as commonly ſuppoſed. This induſtrious animal is found in all the ſtates, and is ſomewhat imitated by the muſk rat, who likewiſe builds his hut in ſhallow ſtreams. Some kinds of monkies are

[4] Dobrizhoffer de Abiponibus, vol. i. 283. Vienna, 1784. 8vo.

* Perhaps from Cayenne: but ſuch exported animals are always ſmall, and zoology is not much aſſiſted by a menagery.

ſaid

ſaid to be found in the ſouthern ſtates. The morſe or ſea cow, and the ſeal, uſed to frequent the northern ſhores; and the manati, common in South America, is ſaid ſometimes to appear on the ſouthern coaſts: this animal, which has fore feet like hands, and a tail like a fiſh, while the breaſts of the female reſemble thoſe of a woman, ſeems to be the mermaid of fable. Zoology.

Among the birds there are many kinds of eagles, vultures, owls; and numerous ſorts called by European names, though generally different in the eye of the naturaliſt. The bird called a turkey is peculiar to America, and abounds in the north.[5] They were brought from Mexico to Spain, and from Spain to England about 1524; the African poultry, or *meleagrides*, of more ancient authors, being Guinea fowls. There are alſo birds which reſemble the partridge, ptarmigan, and quail, of Europe. Virginia abounds with beautiful birds, among which is the humming bird, as already mentioned, while the wakon reſembles the bird of paradiſe:[6] and it may be conceived that vaſt varieties of aquatic birds crowd the numerous lakes and rivers, the largeſt being the wild ſwan, which ſometimes weighs thirty-ſix pounds. Some of the frogs are of remarkable ſize; and the tortoiſe, or turtle, ſupplies a delicious food, while the alligator is not unknown in the ſouthern rivers. Of ſerpents Mr. Morſe enumerates near forty kinds found in the United territories, Virginia, in particular, producing great numbers. The rattleſnake is the largeſt, being from four to ſix feet in length, and is one of the moſt dreaded. Among the fiſh are moſt of thoſe which are eſteemed in Europe; and among thoſe that are peculiar may be mentioned that large kind of white trout found in the lakes.

The mineralogy of the United States will not ſupply an extenſive theme, as few ſubſtances are found, except thoſe which are indeed the moſt precious to induſtry, iron and coal. In the diſtrict of Main the founderies are ſupplied with bog iron ore; and there is ſaid to be a kind of ſtone which yields copperas, or vitriol, and ſulphur. Iron ore is found in great abundance in Maſſachuſetts, where there are conſiderable manufactures. Copper ore alſo appears in that province with Mineralogy.

[5] Pennant, A. Z. i. 349. [6] Morſe, 169.

Mineralogy. black lead, aluminous ſlate; and aſbeſtos is ſaid to be found in a quarry of limeſtone. In Rhode iſland there are mines of iron and copper; and at Diamond Hill a variety of curious ſtones.* On the banks of the Connecticut is a lead mine, but too expenſive to work; and zinc is alſo found, with talcs, and cryſtals of various colours. At Philipſburg in New York is a ſilver mine; and lead, zinc, and manganeſe, with copper and coal. Gypſum, talc, aſbeſtos, alſo occur in that extenſive province. In New Jerſey a rich copper mine was long wrought, pretended to have been diſcovered by a flame viſible in the night, like one of the gold mines in Hungary. The middle provinces ſeem only to produce iron ore; but Virginia is celebrated for various minerals. A lump of gold ore was found near the falls of the river Kapahanoc, probably rolled down from its ſource, or that of ſome tributary rivulet. There are lead mines which yield from fifty to eighty pounds from one hundred of ore: copper and black lead are alſo found; and there is abundance of excellent coal on both ſides of James river, ſaid to have been diſcovered by a boy in purſuit of cray fiſh. Coal alſo abounds towards the Miſſiſſippi and Ohio; and at Pittſburg is of ſuperior quality: but this valuable mineral is chiefly worked in Virginia, where the beds ſeem very extenſive. Limeſtone is rare on the eaſt of the Blue ridge; but there is a vein of marble which croſſes James river. Amethyſts, or violet-coloured cryſtals, are alſo found in Virginia; and it is probable that the emerald mentioned by Mr. Jefferſon was only a green cryſtal. North Carolina is croſſed by a long ridge of limeſtone, in a ſouth weſterly direction, but no minerals ſeem to have been diſcovered. In the territory ſouth of the Ohio, what is called ſtone-coal is found in the Cumberland mountains, or great Laurel ridge, (ſuppoſed by ſome to be of great height,) and there are ſalt ſprings near the upper branches of the Tennaſſee. In South Carolina there are ſaid to be appearances of ſilver and lead, with abundance of iron ore, and quarries of free-ſtone; but the coarſe diamonds are probably mere cryſtals of quartz. Georgia, the moſt ſouthern ſtate, is of a rich ſoil; but beſides a bank of oyſter

* Native copper is found on the river Tonnagan, which runs into Lake Superior. Mackenzie, xli.

ſhells,

ſhells, ninety miles from the ſea, there ſeems no mineralogic diſcovery.* Mineralogy.

There are ſeveral mineral waters, of various virtues, in different provinces of the United States, but none of diſtinguiſhed eminence like Bath, or Aix-la-Chapelle. In the province of Vermont, or the Green Mountain, there is a remarkable ſulphureous ſpring, which dries up in two or three years, and burſts out in another place. There are ſeveral mineral ſprings in Maſſachuſetts, but little frequented, and there is another at Stafford in Connecticut. Thoſe of Saratoga, in the province of New York, are remarkably copious, and ſurrounded with ſingular petrifactions. They are conſiderably frequented, as well as thoſe of New Lebanon in the ſame country. New Jerſey boaſts of ſome chalybeate waters; and near Iſle Creek in Pennſylvania on the river Allegany, or Ohio, there is a ſpring which yields petroleum, ſaid to be uſeful in rheumatic complaints. Two warm ſprings occur in Virginia, one of them 112°. Theſe are called the ſprings of Auguſta; but others more frequented are near the river Patomak. A bituminous ſpring was diſcovered on the eſtate of General Waſhington, which eaſily takes fire, and continues burning for ſome time. The ſalt ſprings in Kentucky alſo deſerve mention; and there are others in the province of Tennaſſee. In Georgia, near the town of Waſhington, there is a remarkable ſpring riſing from a hollow tree, which is incruſted with matter probably calcareous. Mineral Waters.

The natural curioſities of the United States are numerous, and have been inveſtigated with that laudable attention, which has been particularly directed by the Engliſh towards ſuch intereſting appearances. Beſides the irruption of the river Patomak through the Blue Mountains, and other objects already mentioned, the principal uncommon features of nature ſhall be briefly indicated from Mr. Morſe's American Geography. In Vermont there is a remarkable impendent ledge of rocks, Natural Curioſities.

* Oyſters are however found in the rivers at a conſiderable diſtance from the ſea, as appears from Mr. Weld and other authors. According to Imlay, 135, there is a very rich vein of copper on the river Wabaſh.

Natural Curiosities.

about two hundred feet high, on the weſt bank of the river Connecticut; and in the ſame province is a curious ſtalactitic cave, in which, after a deſcent of 104 feet, there opens a ſpacious room about 20 feet in breadth, and 100 in length, with a circular hall at the further end, at the bottom of which boils up a deep ſpring of clear water. Rattleſnake Hill in New Hampſhire preſents a ſtalactitic cave; and near Durham is a rock ſo poiſed on another, as to move with one finger; a natural remain of a ruined hill, though in England it would be called Druidical. The rivulet in Maſſachuſetts, called Hudſon's Brook, has excavated in a fantaſtic manner a large rock of white marble.* The falls of the river Powow, in the ſame province, are not only curious in themſelves, but preſent many groteſque mills, and other monuments of induſtry; and a ſimilar appearance occurs on the river Pautukit in Rhode Iſland. In Connecticut is a cave which was for ſome time the retreat of Whaley and Goffe, two of the Judges of Charles I: and in the town of Pomfret is another, rendered remarkable by a humourous adventure of General Putnam.

In the province of New York a rivulet runs under a hill about ſeventy yards in diameter, forming a beautiful arch in the rock; and there is a ſtalactitic cave in which was found the petrified ſkeleton of a large ſnake. The falls of the Mohawk river, called Cohoz, are more remarkable for the width of the ſtream, than from the height of the deſcent. There is a beautiful caſcade in Fayette county, Pennſylvania, over a ſemicircular rock of marble.[7] In Pennſylvania there are alſo ſome remarkable caves, one of which reſembles a church with pillars and monuments. In the territory on the N. W. of the Ohio, the ſavannas, or rich plains, extend for thirty or forty miles without any tree; they are crowded with deer, wild cattle, and turkies, and often viſited by bears and wolves; but this diſtrict is chiefly remarkable for a number of old forts, of an oblong form, with an adjoining tumulus, or tomb. As the Mexicans have a tradition that they paſſed from the

* The ſmall ſandy deſert, about five miles in length, near Race Point, which has overwhelmed a foreſt of trees, alſo deſerves mention. Morſe, p. 316.

[7] Imlay, 304.

north, theſe forts may perhaps be remains of their firſt reſidence, or of ſome nation which they ſubdued. In the weſtern part of Maryland there are ſaid to be ſome remarkable caves: and others occur in Virginia, particularly that called Madiſon's cave, on the N. W. ſide of the Blue ridge, extending about 300 feet into the ſolid limeſtone. The blowing cave emits a ſtrong current of air, particularly in froſty weather. The natural bridge is a ſublime and ſtriking curioſity, being a rock covered with ſoil and trees, acroſs a chaſm, appearing to have been opened in the courſe of ages by a brook, which now runs between two and three hundred feet beneath. The breadth of this bridge is about ſixty feet; and the thickneſs of the maſs about forty.[8] The rock is limeſtone, which eaſily waſtes by the attrition of water, whence the number of caverns in that kind of rock, while in the granitic, or argillaceous they rarely occur. In Kentucky the banks of the river ſo called, and of Dick's river, are ſometimes four hundred feet in height of limeſtone, or white marble; and there are ſaid to be caverns of ſome miles in length, thus rivalling the celebrated cave in Carinthia. The territory on the ſouth of the Ohio (Tennaſſee) preſents a remarkable ledge of rocks in the Cumberland mountains, about thirty miles in length, and two hundred feet thick, with a perpendicular face to the S. E. The *whirl* is more grand than the irruption of the Patomak through the Blue ridge: the Tennaſſee, which a few miles above is half a mile wide, contracts to one hundred yards, and forces its way through this outer ridge of the Apalachian, forming a whirlpool by ſtriking againſt a large rock. In Georgia the chief curioſity is a large bank of oyſter ſhells, ninety miles from the ſea, to which it runs nearly parallel: if the river Savannah never paſſed in that direction, it is probable that the land has gained ſo far on the ocean.*

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.

[8] In Mr. Weld's travels there is a print of this ſingular bridge, which is not only curious but of great utility.

* So late as the year 1771 there was an excellent harbour, which might receive one hundred ſhips in a good depth of water, at Cape Lookout, North Carolina. It is now entirely filled up, and is ſolid ground; Morſe 139: but it is to be wiſhed that he had more enlarged upon ſo incredible a circumſtance.

The

ISLANDS. The chief iſlands belonging to the United States are Long Iſland, (the province called Rhode Iſland being continental, with two or three ſmall iſlands attached;*) and a few inſular ſtripes of land near the ſhores of North Carolina. The others, ſcattered along the coaſt, and in the various bays and lakes, are of little conſequence.

* Rhode Iſland, which gives name to the State, is about thirteen miles in length, by four in breadth, with a conſiderable town called Newport; and, before the war, was a beautiful and highly cultivated diſtrict.

THE SPANISH DOMINIONS
IN NORTH AMERICA.

CHAPTER I.

Historical Geography.

Boundaries.—Original Population.—Hiſtorical Epochs.—Antiquities.

CONCERNING the Spaniſh poſſeſſions in South America, conſiderable information may be derived from the travels and eſſays of Don Antonio de Ulloa, the writings of Bouguer and Condamine the French mathematicians, and more recently from two Germans, Dobrizhoffer and Helms. But whether from a greater jealouſy of poſſeſſions adjoining to thoſe of the Engliſh, their moſt dreaded enemies, or from a combination of this and other cauſes, any recent and preciſe intelligence reſpecting their dominions in North America rarely appears. The viſionary ideas of the abbé Clavigero, who has pretended to build a Mexican hiſtory upon paintings and ſymbols of moſt doubtful interpretation, have enfeebled the credit to be lent to other parts of his tedious production; and even recent writers concerning Mexico* have been forced to borrow from Gage, and other authors of the ſeventeenth century. Amidſt ſuch a deplorable penury of materials, recourſe muſt unavoidably be had to authorities which might in any other caſe be eſteemed imperfect, dubious, or antiquated. Yet the Spaniſh dominions in North America are more important, in every reſpect, than thoſe which they hold in the ſouthern half of the new continent.

* The true pronunciation is *Mechiko*, from the peculiar ſound of the Spaniſh *x*.

Boundaries. In eſtimating the extent of theſe large and flouriſhing poſſeſſions it will be neceſſary, in the firſt place, to conſider the boundaries. That towards the S. E. is decidedly the eaſtern boundary of Veragua, the laſt province of North America; conſiſting, according to Lopez, of a ridge, as already mentioned, called Sierras de Canatagua. Towards the north the Spaniards do not readily aſſent to a boundary:* but even according to the Engliſh maps it aſcends to the Turtle lake, one of the ſources of the Miſſiſſippi, ſince Louiſiana was ſurrendered by France to Spain on the peace of 1763.† On the weſt the Engliſh ſpecially claim the port of Sir Francis Drake; and mark the Spaniſh boundary at Fort St. Franciſco, to the N. of the town of Monterey. Upon the whole the ſources of the Rio Bravo may be aſſumed as a medial boundary, as there are ſeveral ſmall Spaniſh ſettlements to the north of Santa Fe, that is about lat. 39° 30′ while the ſouthern boundary is about lat. 7° 30′: hence a length of thirty-two degrees, or 1920 g. miles. But the breadth little correſponds to this prodigious length of territory; though in one place, from the Atlantic ſhore of Eaſt Florida to thoſe of California on the Pacific, it amount to about three quarters of that length; but the narroweſt part of the iſthmus in Veragua is not above twenty-five B. miles: in general the medial breadth can ſcarcely be computed at more than 400 g. miles.

Of this wide empire the chief part is diſtinguiſhed by the name of Mexico, or New Spain; the provinces, in aſcending from the ſouth to the north, being Veragua, Coſta Rica, Nicaragua, Honduras, (with the Moſquito ſhore claimed by the Engliſh) Guatimala and Verapaz, Chiapa, Tabaſco, and the peninſula of Yucatan, Guaxaca, Mexico proper, including ſubdiviſions: with New Gallicia, Biſcay, and Leon. What is called the empire of Mexico was in truth only a moderate kingdom; about 600 miles in length, by 140 in breadth. Nay the republic of Tlaſcala was within ſixty miles of the capital.

* They in fact claim the whole North weſt of America, pretending a prior right of diſcovery to the Engliſh, or any other nation; and appoint a Governor of New California, by which name they imply all the N. W. coaſt of America. See La Perouſe, vol. ii. chap. xi. xii.

† But D'Anville's map of Louiſiana, 1752, certainly held complete, extends only to lat. 32° 10′; ſo that there ſeems a gratuitous addition of nearly one half the length of that country.

The

The provinces further to the north are Cinaloa and others on the gulf of California, with that large Cherſoneſe itſelf: New Mexico includes the moſt northern central ſettlements on the Rio Bravo; while, towards the eaſt, Louiſiana, and the two Floridas, complete the chief denominations. But the great diviſions are properly only four: 1. LOUISIANA. 2. The two FLORIDAS. 3. NEW MEXICO, which contains Coaguilla, New Eſtremadura, Sonora, Texas,* New Navarre. 4. MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN, which includes the other provinces and ſeems to extend to the river of Hiaqui, but the boundaries between Old and New Mexico do not ſeem to be indicated with any preciſion. Boundaries.

The original population of theſe extenſive regions was various, conſiſting of Mexicans, and other tribes; conſiderably civilized in the centre, while to the north and ſouth were ſavage races. The origin of the Mexicans remains in great obſcurity, after the fruitleſs reſearches of many ingenious and learned men. Their language appears to be totally different from that of the Peruvians; but the Mexican vocabularies are very imperfect. There ſeems not however to be any reſemblance between either of theſe languages, and that of the Malays, who peopled the numerous iſlands in the Pacific Ocean; nor are the Tatarian, or Mandſhur features to be traced in any account of the Mexicans or Peruvians, though ſingularly diſtinct from thoſe of other races.[1] The animals of America are moſtly diſtinct from thoſe of the old continent; and could in no caſe have deſcended from them. If it cannot be allowed that the great Creator, in like manner, ordained a diſtinct race of Original Population.

* The Spaniſh *x* is pronounced *h*, or *ſh*, as *Xah* Tamas is Shah Tamas. The *j* is alſo pronounced as *h*.

In the travels of M. de Pagés round the world it is aſſerted that New Mexico is further to the ſouth than our maps bear; which is indeed far more probable than the credit of that author. Clavigero, p. x. regrets the defects of the maps of Mexico. Two maps of the coaſts of Spaniſh North America were publiſhed at Madrid, 1797.

[1] See the table of Languages in Dr. Forſter's obſervations on his voyage to the South Sea. In his hiſtory of voyages in the North, p. 43, he ſuppoſes that theſe kingdoms were founded in the thirteenth century, by the troops contained in ſome of the ſhips ſent by Kublai Khan from China, to ſubdue Japan; that great fleet having been ſcattered, and ſuppoſed to have been loſt in a ſevere tempeſt. Careri has publiſhed a curious Mexican drawing of the progreſs of the colony.

Original Population.

men for this continent, it will be neceſſary before this curious queſtion be determined to collect vocabularies of the African languages, as there are on that continent ſeveral nations of a copper colour, reſembling the Americans; and the Mexicans and Peruvians might become more civilized, from mere advantages of ſituation and accident. It is however deeply to be regretted that theſe American empires, or kingdoms were deſtroyed; as, not to mention the cauſe of humanity, they would have afforded curious objects for philoſophic obſervers of human nature. The general opinion ſeems to be that the Mexicans and Peruvians were a diſtinct race from the other Americans; and amidſt a variety of conjectures it might be enquired if they did not proceed from Japan, or be haply of the ſame race with the people of the large iſland of Tchoka, or Sagalian, whoſe features, as deſcribed and delineated by La Perouſe, and the literary men who accompanied him, bear no reſemblance to the Tataric. In this caſe we may conceive that they are remains of a people in eaſtern Aſia, who were expelled by the Mandſhurs, on their progreſs from more weſtern ſettlements.*

Hiſtorical Epochs.

The hiſtorical epochs of Mexico have been of little moment ſince it was conquered by the Spaniards in 1521, when the laſt monarch Guatimozin periſhed, Montezuma having died in the preceding year. According to the Mexican traditions their anceſtors conſiſted of ſeveral ſavage tribes, who about the tenth or eleventh century of the Chriſtian era moved in ſucceſſive migrations from unknown regions towards the north and north-weſt, and ſettled in Anahuac. About the beginning of the thirteenth century a tribe, more poliſhed than the reſt, advanced from the borders of the Californian gulf, and took poſſeſſion of the plains adjacent to the great lake near the centre of the country.[2] They were for a time governed by chiefs or judges, till the territories becom-

* The honeſt miſſionary Dobrizhoffer, after reſiding twenty-two years in America, and a formal examination of this queſtion, declares that he cannot trace any reſemblance of the Americans, or their language, in any other part of the globe; and that he ſhould incline to believe, were it not from the apprehenſions of ridicule, that they have dropped from another planet. There ſeems a ſhadow of reſemblance between ſome of the Mexican words publiſhed by Dr. Forſter and the Tchoka publiſhed by La Perouſe, as *tche*, three, is in Mexican *jei*, &c. This origin will ſingularly coincide with the Mexican traditions.

[2] Robertſon's America, v. iii. p. 156.

ing

ing more extenſive, the ſupreme authority centred at laſt in a ſingle perſon. Even from the moſt extenſive accounts the monarchical government had not laſted above 197 years; that is, it commenced about A. D. 1324, the firſt monarch being Acamapitzin.* Wars and rebellions, famines and inundations, conſtitute the chief features of Mexican hiſtory; and the Spaniſh government preſents few events of moment, the natives being confined between the two ſeas, and more eaſily checked than in South America, where there is a wide extent of territory for retreat and conſpiracy. Historical Epochs.

The extenſive peninſula of California was diſcovered by Cortez in 1536, but was ſo completely neglected, that in moſt charts it was repreſented as an iſland.[1] The jeſuits afterwards explored this province, and acquired a dominion there as complete as in Paraguay. On their expulſion in 1766 it was found to be a not unfertile region, with ſome mines of gold and a valuable pearl fiſhery. The countries of Cinaloa and Sonora, on the eaſt ſide of the Vermilion ſea or gulf of California, as well as the immenſe provinces of New Navarre, and others of New Mexico, never were ſubject to the Mexican ſceptre, but now acknowledge the power of Spain though the ſettlers be few.† In 1765 a war broke out with the ſavages, which ended in their ſubmiſſion 1771. During their marches the Spaniards diſcovered at Cineguilla, in the province of Sonora, a plain of fourteen leagues in extent, in which vaſt quantities of gold were found in large lumps, at the depth of only ſixteen inches. Before the end of the year 1771 above two thouſand perſons were ſettled at Cineguilla; and other mines, not inferior in wealth, have been diſcovered in other parts of Sonora and Cinaloa. It is probable that theſe diſcoveries have inſtigated other ſettlements in the northern parts of New Spain, and in New Mexico. Theſe colonizations, and the ſettlement of Santa Fe, and others in that vicinity, are important events in the hiſtory of the Spaniſh territories. It is however to be lamented that

* For ſome account of theſe monarchs, and thoſe of the neighbouring tribes, the reader may conſult Clavigero.

[1] Robertſon's America, iii. 228.

† New Mexico was diſcloſed in 1553 by Antonio d'Epéjo. Gage, p. 55, mentions a city of that name as lately built.

Historical Epochs.

the progreſs of theſe ſettlements has not been explained with more care and accuracy, for no ſmall obſcurity attends their chronology.

The wide territory on the north eaſt, called Louiſiana, was firſt explored by Soto, but afterwards neglected till 1682, when from ſome intelligence conveyed to the French ſettlers in Canada, M. de la Salle was induced to ſail down the Miſſiſſippi, which was afterwards to give name to the noted ſcheme of Law. New Orleans was afterwards founded in 1717, on the Miſſiſſippi; and when the wide navigation of that river is conſidered, this city muſt become of great conſequence. By the treaty of peace, 1763, that part of Louiſiana which lies to the eaſt of the Miſſiſſippi was ſurrendered to England; and the French afterwards yielded the other part to Spain.*

The hiſtory of the Floridas is ſufficiently known. After having been conteſted between the French and Spaniards, they were yielded to the Engliſh by the peace of 1763; but being regained by the Spaniards during the American war, they were finally aſſigned to that nation by the treaty of 1783.

Antiquities.

The ancient monuments of the Mexicans ſeem chiefly to conſiſt of a few ſymbolical paintings, the colours of which are remarkably bright, but the deſigns rude. Some of their utenſils and ornaments have alſo been preſerved, but are coarſe and uncouth. Their edifices appear to have been little ſuperior, being meanly built with turf and ſtone, and thatched with reeds. The great temple of Mexico was a ſquare mound of earth, only ninety feet wide, partly faced with ſtone; with a quadrangle of thirty feet at the top, on which was a ſhrine of the deity, probably of wood. In ſpite of the enthuſiaſtic ſuggeſtions of Clavigero, ſuch a temple would make a mean figure if placed by the ſide of the Peguan Shomadoo, erected at a barbarous and early epoch of the Pegueſe, who are not even now eſteemed to be highly civilized. The moſt remarkable monument ſtill remaining is thought to be the aqueduct of Chempoallan—but the architect was a Franciſcan miſſionary!† Our fanciful author proceeds to prove, from tribute rolls, that the Mexicans

* For the recent hiſtory of Louiſiana and Weſt Florida the reader is referred to the account by Mr. Hutchins, geographer to the United States.

† Clavigero, i. 420.

uſed lime; but the beſt proof would have been a few ſolid walls. As the firſt Spaniſh conquerors, in the true ſpirit of Mendez de Pinto, deſcribed every trifling object in the wildeſt colours of hyperbole, ſo the warm imagination of Clavigero creates wonders for its own admiration, while in truth the Mexicans appear to have little exceeded the inhabitants of Eaſter Iſland in any of the arts.* ANTIQUITIES.

CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Religion.— Government.— Population.— Army.— Navy.— Revenue.— Political Importance.

THE religion of the Spaniſh ſettlers in theſe provinces is well known to be the Roman Catholic, and of ſuch a ſort as greatly to impede induſtry or proſperity, for it is computed that one fifth part of the Spaniards conſiſts of eccleſiaſtics, monks, and nuns; and that country muſt be miſerably defective in which the jeſuits were of diſtinguiſhed induſtry. The eſtabliſhment of the inquiſition, and the ſtrange fanaticiſm of the Spaniards, who diſgrace the European name, have not only cruſhed all ſpirit of exertion, but have prevented the admixture of other Europeans, whoſe induſtry might improve their ſettlements, and whoſe courage might defend them. RELIGION.

The religion of the ancient Mexicans appears to have been chiefly founded on fear, the temples being decorated with the figures of deſtructive animals: and faſts, penances, voluntary wounds, and tortures, formed the eſſence of their rites. Human ſacrifices were deemed the moſt acceptable; and every captive taken in war was cruelly tortured

* Careri, vi. 204, briefly deſcribes the *cous*, or pyramids, near Teoti Guacan, called thoſe of the ſun and moon: but his account is brief and unſatisfactory, and drawings are wanted.

and

Religion. and ſacrificed. The heart and head were the portion of the gods; while the body was reſigned to the captor, who, with his friends, feaſted upon it. The extinction of ſuch a ferocious people may not be worthy of much regret: but modern philoſophy is apt to decide on a ſlight and imperfect view.

Thus, inſtead of a benevolent deity, the worſhip of the Mexicans may be ſaid to have been directed to the evil principle of ſome oriental nations, whom all their efforts were ſtretched to appeaſe. In the Mexican language *Teotl* was a general term for any divinity; and in obſcure theory they believed in a creator whom they ſtyled *Ipalnemoani*, that is, "he by whom we live:" but their ſupreme deity was rather that evil ſpirit called *Klacatecolototl*, or the *rational owl*, whoſe delight was to injure and terrify. They believed in the immortality of the ſoul, and a kind of tranſmigration; the good being transformed into birds, and the bad into creeping animals. The principal deities were thirteen in number, among whom were the ſun and moon; and Tlaloc, the god of water, was the maſter of paradiſe; but Mexitli, the god of war, received the chief adoration. There were other gods of the mountains, of commerce, &c. and the idols, rudely formed of clay, wood, or ſtone, ſometimes decorated with gems and gold, were numerous. One was compoſed of certain ſeeds, paſted together with human blood. The prieſts wore a black cotton mantle, like a veil; and there ſeem to have been orders of monks, as among the eaſtern nations of Aſia. The auſterities and voluntary wounds of the prieſts, their poiſonous ointments, and other abominable rites, even as related by Clavigero,* evince that the entire ſyſtem was the moſt execrable that has ever appeared on the face of the earth, alike blaſphemous to God and pernicious to man. The whole is ſo totally unlike any ſyſtem ever practiſed in any part of Aſia, that there is additional cauſe to believe that the people were either indigenal, or have proceeded from Africa, in which alone (as among the Giagas) ſuch cruelties may be traced. The Aſiatic religions ſeem univerſally mild, and even gay, as natural in the worſhip of a being who is benevolence itſelf; while in Africa the preponderance of the evil ſpirit ſeems to have

* See, i. 125, a father invited to the ſacrifice of his daughter: and, 232, the human victims ſacrificed at the conſecration of two temples were twelve thouſand two hundred and ten!

been

been acknowledged by many nations. Certainly the Spaniards never Religion.
facrificed more victims than the Mexicans themfelves devoted ; and the clamours of pretended philofophy will often be found in oppofition to the real caufe of humanity, which it afpires to defend. Could a change of manners have been effected without the ufe of the fword, it would have been highly defirable ; but the defign might have been as fruitlefs as a fermon to a tiger or a rattlefnake. The cruelties of the Spaniards muft, by candour, be partly imputed to the profufion of torture and human blood which every where met their eyes in this unhappy country ; as fuch fcenes change the very nature of man, and inflame him like the carnage of a battle.

Numerous bifhopricks and archbifhopricks have been inftituted by the Spaniards throughout their American poffeffions ; but the eccleſiaſtic geography, if even accurately arranged from the lateft information, would little intereft the general reader. The prelates are nominated by the king ; and the decorations of the churches are exceffive.

The ancient government of Mexico was an hereditary monarchy, Government.
tempered however by a kind of election not unknown in the barbarous ages of Europe, by which a brother or nephew of the late king was preferred to his fons. Defpotifm feems to have begun with the celebrated Montezuma. There were feveral royal councils, and claffes of nobility, moftly hereditary. The nobles were ftyled *pilli* or *tlatoani ;* but the Spaniards introduced the general term of *cazik*, which Clavigero fays fignifies a prince in the language of Hifpaniola ; but is by fome afferted to imply a prieft among the Mahometan Malays. Land was not fuppofed to belong to the monarch, but was alienable by the proprietors. As writing was unknown there was no code of laws, but Clavigero has preferved fome traditions on the fubject. Their armour and tactics appear to have been extremely rude.

The Spanifh government is veſted in the viceroy of Mexico, whofe rank and power are far fuperior to thofe of Peru, and the new kingdom of Granada.* The legal falary of the viceroys of Mexico and Peru is

* About 1776 the N. W. provinces of Sonora, Cinaloa, California, and New Navarre, were erected into an independent government, but without the title of viceroy. Robertfon, iii. 337. A governor, or lieutenant, of the two Californias, refides at Monterey. La Perouſe, ii. 196.

Government. now forty thouſand ducats; but the diſpoſal of lucrative offices, monopolies, connivances, preſents, &c. ſometimes ſwell them to an enormous amount. The court of the viceroy is formed on the regal model, with horſe and foot guards, a grand houſehold, and numerous attendants. In the provinces there are tribunals called Audiences, of which there are eleven for Spaniſh America; and the Council of the Indies, reſident in Spain, controls even the viceroys. Some of the provinces ſeem to be merely geographic, or eccleſiaſtic denominations of ſees, without any municipal or peculiar juriſdiction: but ſome have governors appointed by the viceroy. Beſides the laws of Spain there are particular codes and ſtatutes, which are conſulted in legal deciſions.

Population. The population of all the Spaniſh provinces in North America has been eſtimated at little more than ſeven millions; of whom the natives, called Indians, are ſuppoſed to amount to four millions; and the Spaniards and inhabitants of mixed races are computed at three millions, of which the Spaniards may conſtitute one third. This calculation is however conſidered as liberal, while it is probable that the whole population of Spaniſh North America does not exceed ſix millions.* The ſmall-pox is remarkably fatal; and the black vomit, already mentioned as allied to the yellow fever of the United States, acts at intervals with the ravages of a peſtilence. The number of prieſts, monks, and nuns is alſo injurious to population; which, however, appears upon the whole to have greatly increaſed. In 1612 the inhabitants of Mexico were computed at 15,000: they are now 150,000.†

The population of America, before the European conqueſt, appears to have been greatly exaggerated, as uſual in every caſe of the like nature; and from rough calculations, offered even by claſſical authors, perhaps four fifths may be always deducted. That this is the caſe at leaſt with the diſcoverers of new countries, may be judged from our own enlightened times, in which the Engliſh voyagers to Otaheite ſuppoſed the inhabitants to exceed one hundred thouſand, when, upon actual enumeration, there were found little more than ſixteen thouſand.

* From the recent travels of Helms, it appears that the population in Mexico is far ſuperior to that of Peru.

† Careri in 1697 computed them at 100,000.

It

It is probable that when America was diſcovered, the whole population, including the Weſt Indies, did not exceed four millions. Beſides the uſual miſtakes, there was an additional ſource of exaggeration, as the Spaniſh conquerors, like knights-errant, counted hundreds by thouſands; and the oriental vein of hyperbole, introduced by the Moors, has tainted the early Spaniſh authors. If we allow that a hundred or two of Europeans could ſubvert a mighty American empire, we muſt imagine that its armies were ſmall, as well as cowardly and unſkilful. Population.

The Spaniſh armies in America muſt depend, in a great meaſure, upon the ſupplies ſent from Spain; and jealouſy ſeems to have prevented any juſt ideas concerning the military force conſtantly maintained in garriſons and other ſtations, to check the natives, and prevent foreign invaſion. Spaniſh troops have however greatly declined in reputation; nor does the climate of their poſſeſſions in America ſeem favourable to courage or enterprize. The navy is alſo that of the parent country; but there are many guard ſhips and commercial veſſels ſolely appropriated to the American colonies.* The revenue which Mexico yields to the Spaniſh crown has been ſhewn by Dr. Robertſon to amount to above a million ſterling, but there are great expences. By the moſt recent account the total revenue derived by Spain from America and the Philippines, is 2,700,000l.; of which one half muſt be deducted for the extravagant charges of adminiſtration. It has been aſſerted that the king's fifth of the mines of New Spain only was two millions ſterling, which would ſwell the annual produce of the Mexican mines to ten millions. Dr. Robertſon ſhews, from Campomanes, that the whole produce of the American mines is 7,425,000l. of which the king's fifth, if regularly paid, would be 1,485,000: and it is probable that the mines of New Spain or Mexico, prior to the opulent diſcoveries in the north-weſt provinces, did not yield above one half of the whole amount. Army. Navy. Revenue.

The political importance of colonies is of courſe merged in that of the parent country. If the ſpirit of bigotry could be ſuppreſſed, which neglects every worldly concern, and if the Spaniſh colonies were thrown Political Importance.

* Four corvettes of twelve guns and one goletta, are ſtationed at Monterey, to ſupply the preſidencies of North California with neceſſaries. Theſe veſſels performed the Spaniſh expeditions to the north-weſt coaſt of America. La Perouſe, ii. 207.

Political Importance.

open to the induſtry and enterprize of foreigners, they might recover from their enfeebled ſtate, and oppoſe a bold front to any invaders. In the preſent ſituation of affairs perhaps found policy would even dictate their emancipation, on condition of paying an annual tribute, which might even be more conſiderable than the preſent revenue, from the ſuppreſſion of uſeleſs offices and emoluments, and the extortion of powerful individuals, which yields nothing to the revenues of Spain. Dr. Robertſon has obſerved that the Mexican gazettes are filled with deſcriptions of religious proceſſions, and edifying accounts of the conſecrations of churches, feſtivals and beatifications of ſaints, and other ſuperſtitious baubles, while civil and commercial affairs occupy little attention. The advertiſements of new books ſhew that two thirds are treatiſes of ſcholaſtic theology and monkiſh devotion. Even this ſtate of affairs is better than the ſanguinary idolatry of the natives: but few exertions of ability or induſtry can be expected from ſuch fanatics; and it may eaſily be predicted that a continuance of this ſpirit would render the people as unfit for war as for pacific enterprizes; and that if Spain do not amend her colonial ſyſtem, her rich poſſeſſions will, at the firſt onſet, become a prey to their northern neighbours.

CHAPTER III.

Civil Geography.

Manners and Cuſtoms.—Language.—Education.—Cities and Towns.—Edifices.—Manufactures and Commerce.

Manners and Cuſtoms.

THE manners and cuſtoms of the Spaniards in their North American ſettlements have not been particularly illuſtrated; but if they differ from thoſe of the parent country it is chiefly in an increaſe of religious fanaticiſm. Thoſe of the ancient Mexicans have been deſcribed by many

Manners and Customs.

many authors, but a few ſingularities may be here mentioned. A peculiar feature of the Mexican language was, that a termination indicating reſpect might be added to every word. Thus in ſpeaking to an equal, the word father was *tatl*, but to a ſuperior *tatzin*. They had alſo reverential verbs, as appears from Aldama's Mexican grammar. Thus, as cowards are always cruel, the moſt ferocious people in the world were at the ſame time, alſo the moſt ſervile and obſequious. Their wars were conſtant, and ſanguinary; and their manners in general correſponded with this barbarous diſpoſition: the principal warriors covering themſelves with the ſkins of the ſacrificed victims, and dancing through the ſtreets.* The year was divided into eighteen months, each of twenty days; and five days were added, which were dedicated to feſtivity. They cultivated maize and ſome roots; but their agriculture was rude, and they were ſtrangers to the uſe of money. On the death of a chief a great number of his attendants were ſacrificed.

Language.

Of the Mexican language grammars and dictionaries have been publiſhed in the country; and from the few ſpecimens contained in European publications it appears to differ radically from the Peruvian. The words frequently end in *tl;* and are beſides of a ſurpriſing and unpronounceable length, reſembling in this reſpect the language of the ſavages in North America, and ſome of the African dialects; but ſtrongly contraſted with thoſe of Aſia, in which the moſt poliſhed, as the Chineſe, are monoſyllabic. According to Clavigero the Mexican tongue wants the conſonants *b*, *t*, *f*, *g*, *r*, and *s*; in which reſpect only, though unobſerved by that author, it ſtrictly coincides with the Peruvian; except that the latter, inſtead of the *s*, is ſaid to want the *z*, a mere difference of enunciation. But the Peruvian is a far ſuperior and more pleaſing language, though ſome modifications of the verbs be of extreme length. The wild enthuſiaſm of Clavigero compares the Mexican with the Latin and Greek; though as like, as he to Herodotus. Some of the words are of ſixteen ſyllables. Their poetry conſiſted of hymns, and of heroic and amatory ballads. They had alſo a kind of dramas; but from the ſpecimen

* The dreſs was a looſe cloak, and a ſaſh girt round the naked waiſt. From the ancient paintings it appears that the under lip was pierced to receive an ornament of gold. This cuſtom La Perouſe and others have obſerved on the N. W. coaſt of America.

produced

Language. produced they do not ſeem to have been ſuperior to thoſe of Otaheite.

Education. There are ſeveral laudable inſtitutions in the Spaniſh ſettlements for the education of the natives, and ſome colleges or univerſities; but the fanatical ſpirit of the inſtructors renders ſuch foundations of little value.

Cities. Mexico. The chief city of New Spain, and all Spaniſh America, is Mexico, celebrated for the ſingularity of its ſituation. In a beautiful vale ſurrounded with mountains the lake of Tezcuco is joined on the ſouth to that of Chalco by a ſtrait, on the weſt ſide of a tongue of land, the whole circuit of theſe lakes being about ninety miles. In a ſmall iſle to the north of this junction, and upon the weſt ſide of the lake of Tezcuco, roſe the old city of Mexico, acceſſible by ſeveral cauſies raiſed in the ſhallow waters, but on the eaſt ſide there was no communication except by canoes. It is ſaid by Robertſon, from recent Spaniſh documents, to contain 150,000 inhabitants; of which probably a third part is Spaniſh. The moſt recent account of this remarkable city ſeems to be that given by Chappe D'Auteroche,* who viſited it in 1769, and informs us that it is built upon a fen, near the banks of a lake, and croſſed by numerous canals, the houſes being all founded on piles. Hence it would ſeem that the waters of the lake have diminiſhed, ſo as to leave a fenny acceſs on the weſt.† The ground ſtill yields in many places; and ſome buildings, as the cathedral, have ſunk ſix feet. The ſtreets are wide and ſtraight, but very dirty; and the houſes, reſembling thoſe in Spain, are tolerably built. The chief edifice is the viceroy's palace, which ſtands near the cathedral in a central ſquare, but is rather ſolid than elegant. Behind the palace is the mint, in which more than a hundred

* Voyage to California, 1778, 8vo. This ſhort but curious work ſeems to have eſcaped Dr. Robertſon. A plan of Mexico is inſerted, but injudiciouſly not extended to the lake. The account of Mexico by Pagés ſeems only to evince that his work is a fabrication.

† This probably happened after 1629, when there was a remarkable inundation, and a wide canal was led through a mountain to drain the lakes. The large lake is ſaline, the bottom being nitrous; but that of Chalco rather ſweet. Certain it is that the ſite of the city is the ſame with the ancient, the viceroy reſiding on the ſpot of Montezuma's palace, in a large manſion built by Cortez, and ſtill rented at four thouſand ducats from the Marquiſes del Valle his deſcendants. La Croix, ii. 381. But compare Careri, who has given from the original papers a curious detail concerning the procedure in draining the lakes.

workmen are employed, as the owners of the mines here exchange their bullion for coin. The other chief buildings are the churches, chapels, and convents, which are very numerous, and richly ornamented. The outſide of the cathedral is unfiniſhed, as they doubt the foundations; but the rail round the high altar is of ſolid ſilver, and there is a ſilver lamp ſo capacious that three men get in to clean it; while it is alſo enriched with lion's heads, and other ornaments, in pure gold. The images of the virgin, and other ſaints, are either ſolid ſilver, or covered with gold and precious ſtones. Beſides the great central ſquare there are two others, each with a fountain in the middle. "To the north of the town, near the ſuburbs, is the public walk, or *Alameda*. A rivulet runs all round it, and forms a pretty large ſquare, with a baſon and *jet d'eau* in the middle. Eight walks, with each two rows of trees, terminate at this baſon, like a ſtar, but as the ſoil of Mexico is unfit for trees they are not in a very thriving condition. This is the only walk in or near to Mexico; all the country about it is ſwampy ground, and full of canals. A few paces off, and facing the Alameda, is the *Quemadero*; this is the place where they burn the Jews, and other unhappy victims of the awful tribunal of inquiſition. This Quemadero is an encloſure between four walls, and filled with ovens, into which are thrown over the walls the poor wretches who are condemned to be burnt alive; condemned by judges profeſſing a religion whoſe firſt precept is charity."[1] The Spaniſh inhabitants are commonly clothed in ſilk, their hats being adorned with belts of gold and roſes of diamonds; for even the ſlaves have bracelets and necklaces of gold, ſilver, pearls, and gems. The ladies are diſtinguiſhed for beauty and gallantry. Mexico, though inland, is the ſeat of vaſt commerce between Vera Cruz on the eaſt, and Acapulco on the weſt; and the ſhops diſplay a profuſion of gold, ſilver, and jewels. In magnificent regularity it yields to few cities even on the ancient continent. Gage, whoſe authority is uſed by the moſt recent writers of all countries in the defect of other materials, ſays that in his time, 1640, there were ſuppoſed to be fifteen thouſand coaches, ſome of them adorned with gold and gems; the people being ſo rich that it was ſuppoſed that one half of the families kept equipages.[2] CITIES.

[1] D'Auteroche, p. 44.

[2] Survey of the Weſt Indies, 1655, fol. p. 56.

Hiſtorical

Cities. Hiſtorical connection requires a brief notice of Tlaſcala, the republic which aſſiſted Cortez, and which, in conſequence, enjoyed great privileges, but in the time of Gemelli Careri, who viſited it in the end of the ſeventeenth century, it had become a village. The ſee has been moved to Angelos, thirty miles to the ſouth. The large province of Tlaſcala is however very flouriſhing and populous; as the natives enjoy ſome privileges granted to the republic.

Towns. The chief towns in the Spaniſh dominions in North America are St. Yago, Carthago, San Salvador, Guatimala, Chiapa, Guaxaca, Vera Cruz, Acapulco, Mechoacan, Guadalaxara, Panuco, St. Ander, Durango, Cinaloa, whence a line drawn acroſs to the mouth of the Rio Bravo, may be ſaid to bound the long iſthmus on the north. Where the territory widens from Florida to California, are St. Auguſtin, Penſacola, New Orleans, Texas, St. Antonio, St. Paul, and Santa Fe. Towards the weſt, and in California, the ſettlements are ſmall and unimportant. Monterey, though the reſidence of a Governor, is a mere hamlet, the harbour dangerous, and infeſted with fogs. The harbour was diſcovered in 1602, but Monterey, now the capital of the two Californias, was not founded till 1770.[3]

Concerning many of theſe towns there is little recent intelligence; and an earthquake might deface a laboured deſcription. Guatimala was totally deſtroyed by an earthquake June 7th 1773, when eight thouſand families periſhed; but New Guatimala is well inhabited.

Acapulco. Acapulco was a celebrated port on the ſouth of Mexico, engroſſing the chief Indian trade over the Pacific; while Carthagena, in South America, on the Caribbean ſea, was a centre of European traffic. Both were in unhealthy ſituations, as Mexico itſelf; for by a fatal error the Spaniards, Dutch, and other Europeans, have in Aſia and America founded cities on plains, in imitation of thoſe in their own countries, while high ſituations ought to have been ſelected. Mechoacan is a fair commercial town; and Merida, the capital of the peninſula of Yucatan, is a biſhoprick, and the reſidence of the governor of the province. Old

[3] La Perouſe, ii. 200, where curious details may be found concerning the miſſions, or pariſhes, eſtabliſhed among the ſavages.

Vera Cruz was burnt by the Buccaneers, and a more advantageous poſition ſelected for the new city. It contains one church, and three monaſteries, and is encloſed with ruinous fortifications: lying to the ſouth eaſt of Mexico, and the common port for European goods, where a Spaniſh fleet uſed to arrive every two years, taking in return ſilver and other treaſures.[4] On the north are barren ſands, and on the weſt bogs, that have been drained. Guaxaca exports excellent wool and perfumes. St. Leon and Granada are both ſituated on the large lake of Nicaragua, where the chain of the Andes is ſuppoſed to terminate, even by thoſe who carry its extenſion to the utmoſt limit. Santa Fe is remarkable as the moſt northern town of any note; but little is known concerning it except as the ſeat of a biſhop, and the reſidence of a provincial governor. Even the inferior cities contain, as Robertſon obſerves, a ſuperior population to thoſe of any other European nations in America, that of Angelos being computed at 60,000; and of Guadalaxara 30,000, excluſive of Indians.[5] Cities. Vera Cruz. Santa Fe.

The chief edifices are the cathedrals, churches, and convents, as may be expected where the clergy are ſo predominant, that civil architecture, and civil affairs, are almoſt entirely neglected. Part of what may be called the high European road, from Vera Cruz to Mexico, is tolerably ſmooth and pleaſant; but the others are probably neglected, and in ſo mountainous a country they are rough and precipitous. Inland navigations ſeem unknown, and are perhaps unneceſſary. Edifices.

New Spain is ſingularly diſtinguiſhed by the multitude and variety of its productions, in all the three great reigns of nature, animal, vegetable, and mineral. This abundance of natural productions perhaps contributes to the neglect of manufactures. Even metallurgy is but poorly conducted. Cochineal and cocoa,* with a little ſilk and cotton, form articles of export; but the chief are gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. There was a celebrated fair at Acapulco, on the annual arrival of the ſhips from Peru and Chili; after which the noted Manufactures and Commerce.

[4] D'Anterochе California, 21. [5] America, iii. 392.

* Chocolate is ſaid to have been a Mexican liquor; and the beſt nuts are thoſe of Guatimala

Manufactures and Commerce.

galleon, laden with the wealth of America, purſued her courſe to Manilla. Other arrangements are now followed, and ſmaller veſſels employed. The galleons were laid aſide in 1748; and the late Spaniſh monarch inſtituted commercial regulations on a more liberal plan. In 1764 monthly packets were eſtabliſhed between Corugna and Havanna, whence ſmaller veſſels paſs to Vera Cruz, and to Portobello in South America; and an interchange of productions by theſe veſſels is alſo permitted. In the following year the trade to Cuba was laid open to all Spain; and the privilege was afterwards extended to Louiſiana, and the provinces of Yucatan and Campechy. In 1774 free intercourſe was permitted between the three viceroyalties of Mexico, Peru, and New Granada. The courts of juſtice were alſo reformed, and a fourth viceroyalty was eſtabliſhed, 1776, on Rio de la Plata. By a ſingular policy a free trade is permitted between New Spain and the Philippines, which adds conſiderably to the wealth of the former country. The Engliſh trade in the bay of Honduras may now be conſidered as terminated, the logwood on the oppoſite ſide of Yucatan being found to be of ſuperior quality.

CHAPTER IV.

Natural Geography.

Climate and Seaſons.— Face of the Country.— Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.— Foreſts. — Botany. — Zoology. — Mineralogy. — Mineral Waters. — Natural Curioſities.

Climate and Seaſons.

IN Florida, chiefly conſiſting of low grounds, the climate is inſalubrious in the ſummer, when there is a kind of *mal aria* as in Italy; but the winters are mild and healthy. The climate of Louiſiana is cold in the northern parts. In California epidemical diſtempers ſeem to

be frequent; but the country has not been ſufficiently examined by ſcientific obſervers. Moiſture ſeems to predominate in the Iſthmus; but not to ſuch a degree as in the South American province of Darien, where it may be ſaid to rain for nine months of the year. The rains, however, temper the extreme heat, which would otherwiſe predominate in this climate. Violent ſtorms are not unfrequent, and ſometimes the lightening ſeems to riſe from the ground.[1] The maritime diſtricts of Mexico are, however, hot and unhealthy, ſo as to occaſion much perſpiration even in January.[2] The inland mountains, on the contrary, will ſometimes preſent white froſt and ice in the dog days. In other inland provinces the climate is mild and benign, with ſome momentary ſnow in winter; but no artificial warmth is found neceſſary, and animals ſleep all the year under the open ſky. There are plentiful rains, generally after mid-day, from April till September, and hail-ſtorms are not unknown. Thunder is frequent; and the earthquakes and volcanoes are additional circumſtances of terror.* Climate and Seasons.

The face of the country is rather mountainous than plain, except towards the ſhores; but the mountains are interſperſed with delightful vales, and the ſoil is generally fertile. In the northern provinces of Louiſiana and Florida, the ſoil correſponds with that of Georgia, and the weſtern ſettlements of the United States. Concerning New Mexico and California there is little minute and authentic information; but the teſtimony of La Perouſe is greatly in favour of the latter. Face of the Country.

The ſtreams in the Iſthmus are of a ſhort courſe, and little remarkable in any reſpect. The principal river of Spaniſh North America is, beyond all compariſon, the Rio Bravo, called alſo del Norte, or of the northern ſtar. The courſe of this important river, ſo far as its ſources can yet be conjectured, may be about 1000 B. miles; but its whole circuit probably exceeds that of the Danube. The nature of the ſhores, Rivers. Rio Bravo.

[1] D'Auteroche. [2] Clavigero, i. 11. He was himſelf a native of Vera Cruz.

* The climate of California is mild but foggy, and the ſoil remarkably fertile. La Perouſe, ii. 203. Even northern California, as far as Monterey, is by his account ſingularly productive of maize, barley, and peaſe. Careri, vi 35. Fr. tr. ſays there are three harveſts in Mexico, in June, October, and the *aventurera*, or accidental one, upon the mountains.

Rivers. and the various appearances, and qualities of the waters, have not been illuſtrated.

Next in conſequence would ſeem to be the Rio Colorado, on the eaſt of the Bravo, whoſe comparative courſe may be about 700 B. miles. Towards the weſt is a large river which flows into the Vermillion Sea, or gulf of California, alſo called by D'Anville *Colorado*, with the addition *de los Martyres;* but the main ſtream ſeems rather to be the *Rio Grande de los Apoſtolos*, barbarous appellations impoſed by the Jeſuits who had ſettlements in California. The courſe of this river may be computed at 600 B. miles. Among the rivers of the iſthmus may be mentioned thoſe of Palmas, of Panuco, Tabaſco, Sumaſinta, St. Juan, all flowing into the gulf of Mexico. Thoſe which join the Pacific ſeem mere rivulets; till, in the vicinity of Mexico, the mountains rather tend to the eaſt, and the ſtreams of Yopez, and Zacatula, join the Pacific Ocean. That of Guadalaxara riſes to the W. of Mexico; and being conſidered as paſſing through the lake of Chapala will thus join the Pacific after a comparative courſe of 350 B. miles.*

Lakes. The chief lake in Spaniſh North America, ſo far as yet explored, is that of Nicaragua, which is about 170 B. miles in length, N. W. to S. E., and about half that breadth. This grand lake is ſituated in the province of the ſame name towards the ſouth of the iſthmus, and has a great outlet, the river of St. Juan, to the gulf of Mexico, while a ſmaller ſtream is by ſome ſuppoſed to flow into the Pacific.† In the hands of an enterpriſing people this lake would ſupply the long wiſhed for paſſage, from the Atlantic into the Pacific, and in the moſt direct courſe that could be deſired. Nature has already ſupplied half the means; and it is probable that a complete paſſage might have been opened, at half the expence waſted in fruitleſs expeditions to diſcover ſuch a paſſage by the north weſt, or the north eaſt. This ſpeculation muſt depend on circumſtances; but if a paſſage were once opened the

* D'Anville calls it the Barania.

† This laſt ſeems doubtful, or perhaps only exiſts during the inundations. Mr. Edwards, Hiſt. W. Ind. i. 18. quotes Dr. Dancer's Hiſtory of the Expedition from Jamaica to Fort Juan on the lake of Nicaragua, 1780.

force of the ocean would probably enlarge it; and a tribute at this new found would be a conſiderable ſource of revenue. Among the more northern lakes that of Mexico is not only celebrated, but of conſiderable extent, being, according to the beſt maps, more than thirty B. miles in length N. to S. if the part called Chalco be included. Towards the W. in this part, where the iſthmus begins to enlarge, there are ſeveral lakes, the principal being that of Chapala, which is about ſixty B. miles in length by twenty in breadth. The north weſtern parts have been little explored, but probably contain ſome lakes of conſiderable extent. In Weſt Florida are the lagoons of Ponchatrain and Maurepas; and in Eaſt Florida the lakes of Mayaco and George, with others of ſmaller note. Lakes.

The whole of the Spaniſh territories in North America may be regarded as mountainous. The grand chain of the Andes ſeems to terminate, as already mentioned, on the weſt of the gulf of Darien in South America, but by others is ſuppoſed to extend to the lake of Nicaragua. Even this extenſion would totally differ in its direction from the Andean range, as bending N. W., then S. W. then again N. W. ſo that the main range ſeems here loſt, or paſſes through the Caribbean ſea in the iſles of Moſquitos and others towards Jamaica; while the mountains in the ſouth of the iſthmus, as far as the lake of Nicaragua, muſt be regarded as only a branch, declining much in height, till it finally expire at that lake. In this point of view the ranges paſſing from N. to S. muſt be regarded as ſpurs of the main chain; but as on the one hand orology is confounded by minute and various appellations given to portions of the ſame range, ſo it may be equally perplexed by too extenſive appellations; which, as in the caſe of the Taurus of the ancients, can only impart confuſed and erroneous ideas. The Mexican mountains ſeem to conſiſt of gneiſs, granite, &c. while the grand chain of the Andes has a moſt peculiar character, being compoſed of argillaceous ſchiſtus. It has already been obſerved that the ridge of Canatagua paſſes N. and S. between the provinces of Veragua and Panama. It is followed in the former province by the Mountains.

range

Mountains. range called Urraca, and the volcano of Varu; and by ſeveral ridges in Coſta Rica.

To the north of the lake of Nicaragua the main ridges often paſs eaſt and weſt; and the Sierra of Yucatan N. E. The chief ſummit of Nicaragua ſeems to be the Mamatombo. The volcano of Guatimala raged furiouſly during the earthquakes which ruined that great city in 1773. In the ancient kingdom of Mexico, which extended from near the lake of Chapala in the north, to Chiapa, on the river Tabaſco in the ſouth, the ſummits riſe to great height, as being the central parts of a range wholly unconnected with the Andes. Their direction has not been laid down with care or intelligence, more attention having been paid to the numerous volcanoes, than to the other grand features.

Oriſaba, or Orizava. D'Auteroche obſerves that the mountain of Oriſaba is ſaid to be the higheſt in Mexico; and its ſnowy ſummit is viſible from the capital, a diſtance of ſixty miles. This celebrated mountain is to the S. E. of Mexico, not far from the road to Vera Cruz: it became volcanic in 1545, and continued for twenty years; ſince which time there has been no appearance of inflammation. Though the ſummit be clothed with perpetual ſnow, the ſides are adorned with beautiful foreſts of cedars, pines, and other trees.[3] The detached mountains called by the Mexicans Popacatepec, and Iztaccihuatl, are alſo to the S. E. of the capital, at about thirty miles diſtance, both being volcanic. The crater of the former is ſaid to be half a mile wide, and celebrated for ancient eruptions. Both are covered with perpetual ſnow.* There are many other volcanoes in this ſingular province; while others are only remarkable for height, as the mountain of Tlaſcala, the Tentzon,

[3] D'Auteroche California, p. 37. Clavigero, i. 13. who adds that it is the higheſt land of the kingdom, and its conic form obſerved at ſea, at the diſtance of fifty leagues. Some think it higher than the peak of Teneriffe. Gage, p. 69, gives an account of Popacatepec, and ſays the volcanoes extend as far ſouth as Leon in Nicaragua. His account of the wilderneſs three leagues N. W. from Mexico, p. 70, is curious, and his whole work very intereſting.

* Clavigero, i. 14, mentions that in 1760 a ſmall hill near the village of Guacana burſt with furious volcanic ſhocks, and emitted fire and burning rocks till in 1766 the circumference was ſix miles. The aſhes were borne to the diſtance of 150 miles, and in Valladolid, or Mechoacan, ſixty miles diſtance, the inhabitants were obliged to ſweep their yards two or three times in the day.

Toloccam,

Toloccam, and others; the range now extending in a N. W. direction towards Cinaloa, and being called the Sierra Mada, or Mother range, and the Shining Mountains.* It is afterwards, according to the beſt maps, joined by a ridge running N. W. from Louiſiana; and after this junction paſſes through the north-weſt to the proximity of the arctic ocean, while the centre of North America conſiſts of extenſive and fertile plains. Mountains.

The conſtruction of the Mexican mountains has not been examined by any geologiſt. Among the ſubſtances baſalt ſeems clearly indicated; and ſome others will be mentioned in the mineralogy. There are numerous foreſts on the ſides of the mountains; and the peninſula of Yucatan is particularly abundant in logwood trees. Foreſts.

One of the numerous deſiderata of topographical botany is a ſcientific account of the native plants that grow in the Spaniſh North American territory weſt of the Miſſiſſippi. We know in general that it is extremely rich in its vegetable productions, but are obliged to infer the particulars from the articles of commercial export from the Mexican harbours, and the ſhort liſt given by Cavanilles of the Mexican plants cultivated in Spain. Botany.

Such of the trees and plants of Louiſiana as we are acquainted with, are for the moſt part inhabitants alſo of the United States, and have been already noticed. The ſimilarity therefore of theſe, and the deficiency of information concerning the reſt, prevent us from giving any thing more than a very few fragments of the botany of a country which, by its extent and climate, is well worthy of minute inveſtigation.

The plants that characterize the N. American poſſeſſions of the Spaniſh crown are cactus cochenilifer, a ſpecies of the Indian fig, upon which the cochineal inſect more particularly delights to feed: convolvulus jalapa, the true jalap, a native of the province of Xalappa, in the viceroyalty of Mexico; copaifera officinalis and toluifera balſamum, two trees that yield the fragrant gum reſins known in commerce by the names of balſam of Capivi and of Tolu. The ſhores of the bays of

* A letter from Cinaloa (Hay de rebus Japonicis Antv. 1605, p. 945), ſays that province is bounded on the eaſt by the *Tepeſuan* mountains.

Honduras

Botany. Honduras and Campechy have been celebrated from their very firſt diſcovery for their immenſe foreſts of mahogany and logwood; and the neighbourhood of Guatimala is diſtinguiſhed for its indigo. The guayacum, the ſaſſafras and tamarind, the cocoa nut palm, the chocolate nut tree, and a variety of others, which are better known as natives of the Weſt Indian iſlands, enrich and adorn theſe fertile provinces. The pine apple grows wild in the woods, and the ſhallow rocky ſoils are inhabited by the various ſpecies of aloe and euphorbia. A few Mexican plants have been introduced into European gardens, among which may be noticed the ſalvia fulgens, glowing with its crimſon bloſſoms, the ſplendid dahlia, the elegant ſtriated ſiſyrinchium, the gigantic helianthus, and the delicate mentzelia.

Zoology. The zoology has been ably illuſtrated by Hernandez, ſtyled the Pliny of New Spain, who flouriſhed in the middle of the ſeventeenth century. The variety of animals is great, though it do not equal that of the plants and minerals. Among the moſt ſingular animals is the Mexican or hunchback dog, a kind of porcupine; and ſome others deſcribed by ſeveral naturaliſts. What is called the tiger ſeems a ſpecies of panther, and ſometimes grows to a great ſize, though Buffon, ever fond of theory, aſſert that American animals are generally ſmall. In South America it attains the length of a large ox, as appears from the teſtimony of Dobrizhoffer; but Clavigero ſays that the largeſt quadruped is the Danta, Anta, or Tapir, about the ſize of a middling mule, being amphibious. This animal ſeems to be different from the Lanta or Danta of Africa, deſcribed by Leo; but the identity of the name tends to corroborate the idea that America was peopled from Africa. The biſon is found in New Mexico; and the muſk cattle may perhaps extend as far. In California there are ſaid to be wild ſheep. The birds of New Spain are particularly numerous and curious.*

Mineralogy. The mineralogy of the Spaniſh empire in North America is equal, if not ſuperior, to that of Peru, and the other ſouthern provinces. Even in the northern parts nature has diſcloſed her treaſures: the abundance of gold found in the province of Sonora has been already mentioned; and Ca-

* Pennant, A. Z. i. 3. from Fernandez Nov. Hiſp. x. c. 30. Lockman's travels of the Jeſuits, i. 400. Du Pratz, ii. 95, gives a good account of the humming birds of Louiſiana.

lifornia

lifornia is ſuppoſed to contain rich minerals.* The ſilver mines in New Spain, though they do not contend with Potoſi, have long maintained great celebrity. Thoſe of Sacotecas, or Zacatecas, are particularly diſtinguiſhed. The produce of the Mexican mines, as already mentioned, has by ſome been computed at ten millions yearly; but the whole amount of the American mines probably does not exceed ſeven millions and a half; of which it cannot be ſuppoſed that North America produces more than two thirds. The ancient Mexicans found gold in many of their rivers; and ſilver was dug up, but little eſteemed. The chief ſilver mines are now to the north-weſt of the capital, where there is a town called Luis de Potoſi, more than 200 B. miles from Mexico. Theſe mines are ſaid to have been diſcovered ſoon after thoſe of Potoſi, 1545: they are in a conſiderable range of mountains, which give ſource to the river of Panuco. Concerning the nature of theſe mines, and the manner of working them, the Spaniſh writers ſeem to be ſilent.

MINERALOGY. Silver.

Copper is ſaid to abound in ſome diſtricts to the weſt of the capital; and tin is alſo mentioned among the Mexican minerals.† Mercury is likewiſe reported to have been found in Mexico, and there was a celebrated mine in Peru; but both ſeem to be now exhauſted, as the chief ſupply is from Spain. Amber and aſphalt likewiſe occur in New Spain: and among the precious ſtones a few diamonds, with amethyſts and turquoiſes, but the liſt is imperfect, and perhaps erroneous. The mountains alſo produce jaſper, marble, alabaſter, magnet, ſteatite, jad, talc. The ſtone called *tetzontli*, red and porous, was uſed in building, being perhaps a kind of tufa. The *itzli* is ſemi-tranſparent, of a glaſſy ſubſtance, and generally black, but alſo found white and blue: it was uſed in mirrors; and alſo for ſharp inſtruments, being the ſame called *pietra del Galinazzo* in South America, the obſidian or volcanic glaſs of modern mineralogy.‡

There

* The chief gold mines were formerly in the provinces of Tierra Firme, and the new kingdom of Granada. Robertſon, iii. 297. There were alſo ſeveral in Veragua: and many ſilver mines on the ſouth of the province of Honduras. The pearl fiſhery in the Vermilion ſea is neglected, becauſe there are no good divers.

† Clavigero, i. 387, ſays that the Mexicans uſed thin pieces of tin, and bits of copper in the ſhape of a hammer, as money.

‡ At the end of D'Auteroche's voyage to California there is a curious letter from Alzate, a Mexican gentleman, to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, on the natural hiſtory of New Spain.

Mineral Waters.

There are ſeveral mineral waters of various qualities, ſulphureous, vitriolic, and aluminous; and ſome ſprings of great heat, but none ſeem particularly diſtinguiſhed. Beſides the volcanoes there are many natural curioſities, one of the moſt remarkable being the Ponte de Dios, or bridge of God, reſembling the natural bridge in the territory of the United States. It is about one hundred miles S. E. from Mexico, near the village of Molcaxac, over a deep river called the Aquetoyaque, and is conſtantly paſſed as a highway; but it ſeems uncertain whether the river have worn the paſſage through a rocky mountain, or the fragment be part of a fallen hill detached by an earthquake. There are many romantic cataracts, among which muſt be mentioned thoſe of the river Guadalaxara, between the city of the ſame name and the lake of Chapala. The floating gardens in the lake of Mexico were artificial curioſities, the bottom being formed of intertwiſted willows.

Natural Curioſities.

Spain. He mentions ſome trees of ſurpriſing ſize, one of them fifty feet in circumference: and, perhaps credulouſly, reports that, in digging a mine in the province of Roucra, petrified human bodies were found, which yielded a conſiderable quantity of ſilver. The large teeth and bones ſeem to be the ſame with thoſe of the mammoth; and he obſcurely deſcribes baſaltic columns. The bell ſtone is probably the ſonorous marble of China. The cedar ſilver ore of Huajanato ſeems only dendritic, mingled with ſpar.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS

IN NORTH AMERICA.

CANADA.— Diviſions.— Extent. — Religion.—Government.— Population.—Revenues.—Manners and Cuſtoms.—Language.—Cities and Towns.—Manufactures and Commerce.—Climate and Seaſons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.— Zoology.—Mineralogy.— Natural Curioſities.— NEW BRUNSWICK.—NOVA SCOTIA.— CAPE BRETON.—NEWFOUNDLAND.—THE BERMUDAS.

THOSE parts of North America which ſtill belong to Great Britain are extenſive, and of conſiderable importance, though ſo thinly peopled, and in ſuch a diſadvantageous climate, that they ſink into inſignificance, when compared with the great and flouriſhing colony belonging to Spain, or with the territories of the United States. The inhabitants of the former have been eſtimated at ſeven millions, and thoſe of the States at five; while thoſe of the Britiſh poſſeſſions ſcarcely exceed two hundred thouſand ſouls, and the far greater part are French and indigenes.

The chief of theſe poſſeſſions is Canada, now divided into two provinces, called Upper and Lower Canada, the former being the weſtern diviſion, on the north of the great lakes or ſea of Canada; while the lower diviſion is on the river St. Lawrence towards the eaſt, and contains Quebec the capital, and the chief city of our remaining ſettlements. Diviſions.

On the eaſt of Canada, to the ſouth of the river St. Lawrence is Nova Scotia; which in 1784 was divided into two provinces, that of Nova Scotia in the ſouth, and New Brunſwick in the north.

Divisions. What is called New Britain comprehends the moſt northern parts towards Hudſon's Bay, and the coaſt of Labrador. The large iſland of Newfoundland; that called Cape Breton; and the neighbouring iſle St. John; complete the chief denominations of Britiſh territory. But in the Engliſh maps, while Greenland is aſſigned to Denmark, all the other moſt northern parts of America, on the eaſt and on the weſt, as far ſouth as the port of Sir Francis Drake, are impreſſed with the colour of Britiſh territory. By the right of prior, or at leaſt of more complete and preciſe, diſcovery, the weſtern coaſt might be conſidered as belonging to England, according to the eſtabliſhed uſage of all European nations; and which of courſe muſt be admitted as valid in a cauſe between any two of them. This right may indeed be carried to a ridiculous exceſs; and we have ſeen navigators in our own time giving new names to places in Cochin China, a country perhaps as civilized as their own; which is the ſame as if a Chineſe junk ſhould ſail up the Thames, and the captain beſtow new names upon every object. But in a country thinly inhabited by ſavages, and adapted for European ſettlements, the caſe is totally different; and any uſage, however ridiculous, muſt be admitted which tends to prevent diſputes and conteſts. The firſt ſettlement ſeems however to be the moſt rational claim; and no ſuch event having yet happened, the weſtern coaſt of North America ſhall be arranged among the Unconquered Countries, which ſeems to be the moſt proper method, when the ſettlements are only a few detached factories, to which the natives profeſs no ſubjection. Hence the regions around Hudſon's Bay, with Labrador and Greenland, are, from the intenſe ſeverity of the climate, declared free by nature, and ſhall alſo be claſſed among the Unconquered Countries. The preſent ſhort deſcription ſhall therefore only compriſe Canada, and the other Britiſh provinces in the ſouth, which form actual poſſeſſions or colonies.

CANADA.

Extent. This country is computed to extend from the gulf of St. Lawrence, and iſle of Anticoſti, in the eaſt, to the lake of Winnipeg in the weſt, or from

from long. 64° to 97° weſt from London, thirty-three degrees, which in that latitude may be about 1200 g. miles. The breadth, from the lake of Erie, in the ſouth, or lat. 43°, may extend to lat. 49°, or 360 g. miles; but the medial breadth is not above 200. The original population conſiſted of ſeveral ſavage tribes, whoſe names and manners may be traced in the early French accounts, which may alſo be conſulted for the progreſſive diſcovery, the firſt ſettlement being at Quebec in 1608. During a century and a half that the French poſſeſſed Canada, they made many diſcoveries towards the weſt; and Lahontan, in the end of the ſeventeenth century, has given a tolerable account of ſome lakes beyond that called Superior, and of the river Miſſouri. Quebec being conquered by Wolfe 1759, Canada was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Paris 1763. CANADA.

The religion is the Roman Catholic, but the Britiſh ſettlers follow their own modes of worſhip. There are only twelve clergymen of the church of England, including the biſhop of Quebec; while the Catholic clergy are 126. By an act paſſed in 1791 a legiſlative council, and an aſſembly, are appointed for each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, having power to make laws with the conſent of the governor; but the king may declare his diſſent at any time within two years after receiving any bill. The legiſlative council is to conſiſt of ſeven members for Upper Canada, and fifteen for the Lower province, ſummoned by the governor under the king's authority, and nominated during their lives, except forfeited by an abſence of four years, or by paying allegiance to a foreign power. The houſe of aſſembly is to conſiſt of fifty members from Lower Canada, and ſixteen from Upper Canada, choſen by the freeholders in the towns and diſtricts. Theſe councils are to aſſemble at leaſt once every year; and the houſe of aſſembly continues four years, except in caſe of prior diſſolution. "The governor, together with ſuch of the executive council as ſhall be appointed by the king for the affairs of each province, are to be a court of civil juriſdiction for hearing and determining appeals; ſubject however to ſuch appeals from their ſentence as heretofore exiſted. All lands in Upper Canada are to be granted hereafter in free and common ſoccage; and alſo in Lower Religion. Government.

CANADA. Canada when the grantee ſhall deſire it, ſubject nevertheleſs to alterations by an act of the legiſlature. Britiſh America is ſuperintended by an officer ſtyled Governor General of the four Britiſh provinces in North America, who, beſides other powers, is commander in chief of all the Britiſh troops in the four provinces, and the governments attached to them, and Newfoundland. Each of the provinces has a lieutenant governor, who, in the abſence of the governor general, has all the powers requiſite to a chief magiſtrate." [1]

Population. The population of the two Canadas, according to an actual enumeration ordered by general Haldimand in 1784, amounted to 113,012 French and Engliſh, excluſive of 10,000 loyaliſts in the upper parts. The ſavages may perhaps amount to 50,000. It is probable that the population has increaſed ſince that period; and certainly would greatly increaſe if the favourable repreſentations of Mr. Weld were credited.

Revenues. The only revenue ariſing to Great Britain from this colony ſeems to proceed from an advantageous commerce, which is ſaid to employ about ſeven thouſand tons of ſhipping. The expences of the civil liſt are ſuppoſed to be 25,000l. of which half is paid by Great Britain and the other by the provinces, from duties on the importation of ſpirits, wine, and a few other articles. The military eſtabliſhment, with repairs of forts, &c. is ſtated at 100,000l.; and the like ſum for preſents to the ſavages, and ſalaries to officers employed among them for trade, &c. in Upper Canada. But the advantages of the commerce are thought to counterbalance theſe expences.

Manners and Cuſtoms. The manners and cuſtoms of the ſettlers in Canada are conſiderably tinctured with the French gaiety and urbanity, blended with the uſual portion of vanity, which is however a far more laudable quality than avarice, which is deſtructive of every generous motive and noble exertion. The French women in Canada can generally read and write, and are thus ſuperior to the men; but both are ſunk in ignorance and ſuperſtition, and blindly devoted to their prieſts.

Language. They univerſally uſe the French language, Engliſh being reſtricted to the few Britiſh ſettlers.

Cities. Quebec. The chief town is Quebec, built on a lofty point of land on the north-weſt ſide of the great river St. Lawrence; which in the neighbourhood

[1] Morſe, 114.

is ſufficiently deep and ſpacious to float more than one hundred ſail of the line. The upper town, on a rock of limeſtone, is of conſiderable natural ſtrength, and well fortified; but the lower town towards the river is open to every attack. Montcalm's vain confidence, in marching out of the city, led to his deſtruction, while a ſiege muſt have been diſſolved by the approach of winter, when it was impracticable to form any works: yet Quebec might in the new procedures of war, yield, like Holland, to a frozen campaign. A large garriſon is maintained; but five thouſand ſoldiers would be neceſſary to man the works. The inhabitants are ſuppoſed to be ten thouſand, about two thirds being French; and the preſence of the governor, courts, and garriſon, conſpire to render it gay and lively. The lower town is moſtly inhabited by traders and mariners. The houſes are commonly of ſtone, ſmall, ugly, and inconvenient; but the new part of the governor's houſe, for there is no citadel, is upon an improved plan. The monaſteries are almoſt extinct; yet there are three nunneries. The market is well ſupplied; and the little carts are often drawn by dogs. The vicinity preſents moſt ſublime and beautiful ſcenery; and the falls of the river Montmorenci are particularly celebrated. CANADA.

Montreal is a neat town, on the eaſt ſide of a conſiderable iſland, formed by the river St. Lawrence at its junction with the river Utawas, which is the boundary between Lower and Upper Canada, about 150 miles above Quebec. This is the utmoſt point to which ſhips can aſcend from the ſea; but ſeveral of the burden of 400 tons reach Montreal by a tedious and difficult navigation. This town contains about twelve hundred houſes, and probably ſix thouſand ſouls; with ſix churches, four of which are Roman Catholic, and four convents. The chief trade is in furs, which are thence ſent to Canada for England. The North-weſt Company conſiſts of merchants of Montreal. The canoes are chiefly employed on the Utawas, whence the fur traders proceed acroſs to lake Winnipeg. Mr. Mackenzie was a partner in the North-weſt Company, which has conſiderably leſſened the trade of that of Hudſon's Bay. La Prairie is a village on the oppoſite ſide of the river to Montreal. Montreal.

At

CANADA. At the grand egreſs of the river St. Lawrence, on the lake Ontario, near what is called the lake of a thouſand iſlands, ſtands the town of Kingſton, more remarkable from its poſition than any other circumſtance. The forts of Niagara and Detroit belong to the ſouthern ſide of the boundary.* The little town of Trois Rivieres, or Three Rivers, ſtands between Quebec and Montreal, and is chiefly remarkable for the reſort of the ſavages: but though it contain little more than 250 houſes, it is conſidered as the third town in Britiſh America.[2] Sorelle was founded in 1787 for the American loyaliſts, but contains only one hundred ſcattered houſes: it is at the diſtance of fifteen leagues from Montreal towards Quebec; and the chief buſineſs is ſhip-building.

Manufactures and Commerce. The principal exports are furs and peltries, with ſome fiſh, potaſh, and American ginſeng.† The imports are ſpirits, wines, tobacco, ſugar, ſalt, and proviſions for the troops. Except ſome linen, and coarſe woollen cloths, manufactured articles are chiefly imported from England.

Climate and Seaſons. Mr. Weld, who is a great admirer of ice, depicts the Canadian climate in the moſt favourable colours, and would perſuade us that, though conſiderably further to the north, it is at leaſt equal to that of New England. But even by his account the extremes of heat and cold are amazing; the thermometer in July and Auguſt riſing to 96, while in winter the mercury freezes. The ſnow begins in November; and

* See Weld, vol. ii. p. 64, &c. Kingſton contains about a hundred houſes, inhabited by emigrants from the United States, and there is a ſtone fort, erected in 1672. The trade in furs is conſiderable. The hamlet of Newark ſtands on the Britiſh ſide of the river Niagara, being the capital of Upper Canada; and though Detroit town and fort be aſſigned to the Americans, there is a Britiſh ſettlement at no great diſtance, on the oppoſite ſide of the river. Ib. 170.

[2] Weld, ii. 11.

† Mr. Mackenzie has given an intereſting hiſtory of the fur trade, which led to the inland diſcoveries in North America. In 1766 Curry penetrated as far as fort Bourbon on the Saſkaſhawin, or river Bourbon of the French. Peter Pond is ſaid to have diſcovered the Slave lake about 1780. The North weſt Company was formed in 1784. In 1798 the beaver ſkins exported were 106,000, and other furs in proportion. The French terms are generally retained. Mr. M. propoſes, p. 409, that the Hudſon's Bay Company ſhould reſign their monopoly, as being conducted on a narrow ſcale, and with little benefit to the public. The ſlow progreſs of diſcovery ſeems to evince the juſtice of his obſervation, and the map of N. America privately engraved for their uſe 1740, would diſgrace the knowledge of 1540, being perhaps the moſt remarkable monument of geographical ignorance that ever appeared. Mr. Burke, in his Hiſtory of the American Settlements, ii. 288, has expreſſed ſtrong oppoſition to the monopoly of this company.

in January the froſt is ſo intenſe that it is impoſſible to be out of doors for any time without the riſk of what is called a froſt-bite, which endangers the limb: and the warm intervals only increaſe the ſenſation and the jeopardy. But winter, as at Peterſburg, is the ſeaſon of amuſement; and the ſledges, drawn by one or two horſes, afford a pleaſant and ſpeedy conveyance. Several ſtoves are placed in the hall, whence flues paſs to the apartments; and there are double windows and doors. On going abroad the whole body is covered with furs, except the eyes and noſe. In May the thaw generally comes ſuddenly, the ice on the river burſting with the noiſe of cannon, and its paſſage to the ſea is terrific, eſpecially when a pile of ice craſhes againſt a rock. Spring is ſummer: and vegetation inſtantaneous. The month of September is one of the moſt pleaſant.* CANADA.

The face of the country is generally mountainous and woody; but there are ſavannas, and plains of great beauty, chiefly towards Upper Canada. In the lower province the ſoil moſtly conſiſts of a looſe blackiſh earth of ten or twelve inches, incumbent on cold clay. This thin mould is however very fertile, and manure was ſeldom or never uſed by the French ſettlers; but of late marl has been employed, and is found in conſiderable quantities on the ſhores of the river St. Lawrence. A little tobacco is cultivated for private uſe, with many culinary vegetables, and conſiderable crops of grain, wheat being reckoned among the exports: a kind of vine is indigenous, but the grapes are ſour, and little larger than currants.[3] Raſpberries are alſo indigenous; and there are good currants and gooſeberries. A great variety of trees is found in the foreſts; beech, oak, elm, aſh, pine, ſycamore, cheſnut, walnut, &c. The ſugar maple tree alſo abounds, and the ſugar is generally uſed in the country. Of this tree there are two kinds, the ſwamp and the mountain maple. Mr. Weld points out ſome difficulties in the tenures of land, which ought to be removed, as in ſuch a climate there is no occaſion for a barrier againſt colonization. Face of the Country. Soil and Agriculture.

* An earthquake, 1663, is ſaid to have overwhelmed a chain of free-ſtone mountains more than 300 miles long. Morſe, p. 62, from the American Muſeum, iii. 292. It is to be wiſhed that this fact were better ſubſtantiated; and ſuch a ſcene could hardly have eſcaped the notice of recent travellers.

[3] Weld, i 381. This kind of vine probably gave name to the Norwegian Vinland.

CANADA.

Rivers. Utawas.

The great river St. Lawrence has been already deſcribed in the general view of North America. The Utawas is the moſt important of all its tributary ſtreams, iſſuing from various lakes, towards the centre of Canada: its waters are of a bright greeniſh colour, while the St. Lawrence is muddy. Many rivers of ſmaller conſequence flow into the

Lakes.

river St. Lawrence from the north. The large lakes have been alſo already mentioned: there are many others, of which the enumeration would be tedious; and ſome difficulty ariſes from the want of any preciſe boundary in the north of Canada. Nor have the mountains been

Mountains.

examined by any geologiſt, who could indicate their ranges or illuſtrate their ſtructure. The chief ridge ſeems to be in the northern part of the province, in a direction S. W. and N. E. giving ſource to the many ſtreams which flow S. E., while a few paſs to Hudſon's Bay. But there are many mountains between Quebec and the ſea, while towards the Utawas only a few are ſcattered, and to the S. W. there are ample plains. The botany differs little from that of the United States: and

Zoology.

the chief ſingularities in zoology are the mooſe, the beaver, and ſome other animals, for which Mr. Pennant's Arctic Zoology may be conſulted. The rein-deer appears in the northern part, and the puma and lynx are not unknown. Both the Canadas are much infeſted with rat-

Mineralogy.

tleſnakes. The humming bird is not uncommon at Quebec.* The mineralogy is of little conſequence; and even iron ſeems to be rare. There are ſaid to be lead mines which produce ſome ſilver;* and it is probable that copper may be found, as it appears in the S. W. of lake Superior. Coal abounds in the iſland of Cape Breton, but this valuable mineral has not been diſcovered in Canada. If ſo wide a territory were properly examined by ſkilful naturaliſts, which ought always to be a primary care with every government for the moſt advantageous poſition of ſettlements, and that every advantage may be ſecured, it is highly probable that important diſcoveries might be made. Little is ſaid of

Natural Curioſities.

warm ſprings, or mineral waters; and the chief natural curioſities ſeem to be the grand lakes, rivers, and cataracts. Among the latter the cele-

* Kalm, ii. 253.

* See Kalm, ii. 349, for an account of theſe veins near the bay of St. Paul, N. E. of Quebec. There are only ſome grains of galena in a kind of ſpar.

brated

brated falls of Niagara are chiefly on the ſide of Upper Canada, the river being there 600 yards wide, and the fall 142 feet. A ſmall iſland lies between the falls: and that on the ſide of the States is 350 yards wide, while the height is 163 feet: from the great fall a conſtant cloud aſcends, which may ſometimes be ſeen at an incredible diſtance; and the whole ſcene is truly tremendous. CANADA. Falls of Niagara.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

THE ancient province of Nova Scotia was granted by James I to his ſecretary Sir William Alexander, afterwards earl of Stirling; and the origin of the title of baronets of Nova Scotia is well known. It was afterwards ſeized by the French, who ſeem indeed to have been the firſt poſſeſſors, and by whom it was called Acadie;[5] but it was ſurrendered to England by the treaty of Utrecht 1713. In 1784, as already ſtated, it was divided into two provinces, New Brunſwick and Nova Scotia. In the former there are two conſiderable bays, and a river of ſome length, called St. John's; while that of St. Croix divides New Brunſwick from the province of Main, belonging to the United States. The river of St. John is navigable for veſſels of fifty tons about ſixty miles; and for boats about two hundred; the tide flowing about eighty. The fiſh are ſalmon, baſs, and ſturgeon; and the banks, enriched by the annual freſhets, are often fertile, level, and covered with large trees. This river affords a common and near route to Quebec. There are many lakes, among which the Grand Lake is 30 miles long, and about nine broad. The great chain of Apalachian mountains paſſes on the N. W. of this province, probably expiring at the gulf of St. Lawrence. The capital is Frederick-town on the river St. John, about ninety miles from its eſtuary. St. Ann's is almoſt oppoſite; and there are ſome other ſettlements nearer the bay of Fundi, with a fort called Howe. There is a tribe of ſavages called the Marechites, eſtimated at 140 fighting men. The chief products are timber and fiſh.

[5] See Lahontan, ii. 24.

NOVA SCOTIA.

Nova Scotia. THIS province is about 300 miles in length, by about 80 of medial breadth, being inferior in ſize to New Brunſwick. There are ſeveral conſiderable rivers, among which that of Annapolis is navigable fifteen miles, for ſhips of 100 tons. The bay of Fundi, between New Brunſwick and Nova Scotia, extends fifty leagues inland; the ebb and flowing of the tide being from forty five to ſixty feet. The capital is Halifax. Halifax, on the bay of Chebucto, well ſituated for the fiſhery, with communications, by land and water, with other parts of this province, and New Brunſwick.[6] There is a good harbour, where a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips of war, employed in protecting the fiſhing veſſels, is laid up in the winter. The town is entrenched, with forts of timber, and is ſaid to contain fifteen or ſixteen thouſand inhabitants, a ſuperior population to that of Quebec. Shelburn, towards the S. W., once contained ſix hundred families: Guiſbury about 250. The harbour of Annapolis is excellent; but it is an inconſiderable hamlet. During a great part of the year the air is foggy and unhealthy; and for four or five months intenſely cold. There are many foreſts; and the ſoil is generally thin and barren, though fertile on the banks of the rivers, in graſs, hemp, and flax; but ſupplies of grain are ſent from England. The Micmacs, an Indian tribe of about 300 fighters, dwell to the eaſt of Halifax. Britain ſends to theſe provinces linen and woollen cloths, and other articles to the amount of about 30,000l.; and receives timber and fiſh worth about 50,000l. The chief fiſhery is that of cod on the cape Sable coaſt. Near cape Canco there are remarkable cliffs of white gypſum. About twenty-three leagues from that cape is the Iſle de Sable, or of Sand, conſiſting wholly of that ſubſtance, mixed with white tranſparent ſtones, the hills being milk-white cones, and ſome 146 feet above the ſea. This ſtrange iſle has ponds of freſh water; with junipers, blueberries, and cranberries, and ſome graſs and vetches, which ſerve to ſupport a few horſes, cows, and hogs. The bay of Fundi preſents an infinite variety of picturеſque and ſublime ſcenery; and the Bore riſes to the height of ſeventy feet.[7]

[6] Morſe, 120.

[7] Pennant, A. Z. cccxi.

ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON.

Cape Breton.

This iſland is attached to the province of Lower Canada, though divided from Nova Scotia only by a ſtrait of one mile in breadth. It is about a hundred miles in length; and according to the French authors was diſcovered at a very early period, about A. D. 1500, by the Normans and Bretons, who navigated theſe ſeas; and being ſuppoſed a part of the continent was called Cape Breton, a name abſurdly retained. They did not however take poſſeſſion of it till 1713, when they erected fort Dauphin: the harbour being found difficult, Louiſburg was built in 1720, the ſettlers being chiefly from Europe, as the Acadians, or French of Nova Scotia, did not chooſe to leave that country. In 1745 Cape Breton was taken by ſome troops from New England; and has ſince remained ſubject to the Britiſh crown. The climate is cold and foggy, not only from the proximity of Newfoundland, but from numerous lakes and foreſts. The ſoil is chiefly mere moſs, and has been found unfit for agriculture. The chief towns are Sidney and Louiſburg; the whole inhabitants of the iſle do not exceed one thouſand. The fur trade is inconſiderable, but the fiſhery very important, this iſland being eſteemed the chief ſeat; and the value of this trade, while in the French poſſeſſion, was computed at a million ſterling. There is a very extenſive bed of coal in this iſland, in a horizontal direction, not more than ſix or eight feet below the ſurface; but it has been chiefly uſed as ballaſt: in one of the pits a fire was kindled by accident, and remains unextinguiſhed.

St. John.

The iſland of St. John is at no great diſtance to the weſt of Cape Breton, being about ſixty miles in length by thirty in breadth, and is attached to the province of Nova Scotia. The French inhabitants, about four thouſand, ſurrendered, with Cape Breton, in 1745. It is ſaid to be fertile, with ſeveral ſtreams. A lieutenant-governor reſides at Charlotte town; and the inhabitants of the iſland are computed at five thouſand.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

NEWFOUNDLAND. THIS iſland was diſcovered by Sebaſtian Cabot in 1496, who alſo founded the prior claim of England to the North American ſhores as far ſouth as Florida. This diſcovery, like that of Columbus and others, was unintentional, the deſign being merely to penetrate to the Eaſt Indies. Thoſe authors who wonder that no colonies were ſent, only ſhew their ignorance of the intentions of the firſt navigators; and at that period there was not one man in Europe who could have formed the ſmalleſt idea of the benefits of a colony. It was the ſucceſs of the Spaniſh colonies, allured by gold alone, that, towards the end of the ſixteenth century, enlarged the ideas of mankind: but even then Ralegh's tranſcendent mind held out gold to all his followers, as the ſole inducement. The iſland of Newfoundland is about 320 miles in length and breadth, the ſhape approaching to a triangle. It ſeems to be rather hilly than mountainous, with woods of birch, ſmall pine, and fir, yet on the ſouth-weſt ſide there are lofty head-lands. The country has ſcarcely been penetrated above thirty miles; but there are numerous ponds and moraſſes, with ſome dry barrens. The great fiſhery on the banks of Newfoundland begins about the 10th of May, and continues till the end of September. The cod is either dried for the Mediterranean; or what are called mud-fiſh, barrelled up in a pickle of ſalt, for the Engliſh market. Theſe banks and the iſland are environed with conſtant fog, or ſnow and ſleet; the former ſuppoſed by ſome to be occaſioned by the ſuperior warmth of the gulf ſtream from the Weſt Indies. The fiſhery is computed to yield about 300,000l. a year, from the cod ſold in the Catholic countries. The iſland of Newfoundland, after many diſputes with the French, was ceded to England 1713, the French having permiſſion to dry their nets on the northern ſhores; and in 1763 it was ſtipulated that they might fiſh in the gulf of St. Lawrence; and the ſmall iſles of St. Pierre and Miquelon were ceded to them. The French, by the treaty 1783, were to enjoy their fiſheries on the northern and weſtern coaſts, the inhabitants of the United States having the ſame privileges as

Fiſhery.

as before their independence; and the preliminaries of October 1801 confirm the privileges granted to the French. NEWFOUNDLAND.

The chief towns are St. John in the S. E. with Placentia in the ſouth, and Bonaviſta in the eaſt; but not above a thouſand families remain during the winter. In the ſpring a ſmall ſquadron is ſent to protect the fiſheries and ſettlements, the admiral being alſo governor of the iſland, its ſole conſequence depending on the fiſhery; and there are two lieutenant governors, one at St. John's, another at Placentia.*

Theſe dreary ſhores are ſtrongly contraſted by the Bermudas or Sommer Iſlands, lying almoſt at an equal diſtance between Nova Scotia and the Weſt Indies; but as they are nearer to the coaſt of Carolina than to any other land, it ſeems more proper to arrange them here than under any other diviſion.

THE BERMUDAS, OR SOMMER ISLANDS.

THEY are four in number, and were diſcovered by the Spaniards under John Bermudas, in 1527; but being afterwards neglected by them, they were again diſcloſed by the ſhipwreck of Sir George Sommer in 1609; which event ſeems to have induced Shakeſpear to deſcribe them as ever *vexed* with ſtorms. Another poet, Waller, who reſided there ſome time, on his being condemned for a plot againſt the parliament in 1643, deſcribes them in very different colours, as enjoying a perpetual ſpring. In 1725 the benevolent and eccentric biſhop Berkley propoſed to erect a college in theſe iſlands for the converſion of the ſavage Americans! Of theſe little iſlands the chief is that called St. George, with a capital town of the ſame name, containing about five hundred houſes, built of a ſoft free-ſtone, probably like that of Bath; the inhabitants being about three thouſand, and thoſe of all the iſles perhaps about nine thouſand. There is a governor, council, and general aſſembly; the religion being that of the church of England. The people are chiefly occupied in building light ſhips of their cedars, in

* The iſle of Anticoſti, at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, is full of rocks, and has no harbour, but is covered with wood; and excellent cod is found on the ſhores.

which

Bermudas. which they trade to North America and the Weſt Indies. It would appear that theſe remote iſles were uninhabited when ſettled by the Engliſh, but a good hiſtory and deſcription of the Bermudas might afford a pleaſing addition to the geographical library. Mr. Morſe ſays that the blacks are here twice as numerous as the whites; and that a great part of their trade conſiſts in carrying ſalt to America. The women are ſaid to be handſome, and both ſexes fond of dreſs, which is perhaps more laudable than the oppoſite extreme.*

* From the chart by Lempriere, 1797, it appears that the largeſt iſland called Bermuda reſembles a hook, the great ſound fronting the north. The length is about 35 g miles, the breadth ſeldom two. The other iſles are St. George's, St. David's, and Sommerſet; with ſeveral iſlets, and numerous rocks. They are alſo frequented by whale-fiſhers.

NATIVE TRIBES,

AND

UNCONQUERED COUNTRIES.

THE arrangement of this diviſion ſhall chiefly purſue the order of the diſcoveries from the eaſt towards the weſt. On this plan Greenland ſhall be followed by Labrador, and the territory belonging to the Hudſon's Bay Company. Some account may be then given of the central parts and tribes; which ſhall be followed by the diſcoveries of the weſtern coaſt and iſlands by the Ruſſians, Cook, Vancouver, La Perouſe, and other navigators, and by the late enterprizing traveller Mackenzie.

GREENLAND.

THE diſcovery of this extenſive region, which, whether continental or inſular, muſt ever continue to be regarded as belonging to North America, has been already mentioned as having been effected by the people of Iceland in the tenth century; the diſtance, according to the beſt maps, being about eight degrees of longitude in lat. 66°, or nearly 200 g. miles; but ſome maps reduce it to five degrees, or not more than 130 g. miles.* The intercourſe between this colony and Denmark was main-

* The induſtrious Torſaeus, in his *Groenlandia Antiqua*, has collected every memorial that could be found concerning ancient Greenland, and has illuſtrated the Daniſh ſettlements with a map in which the neareſt coaſt is ſuppoſed to be at leaſt 200 g miles from Iceland, and diſtinguiſhed by the lofty mountains called Hvitſerk and Blaſerk. It was reported in the old accounts that the mountain Snoefell in Iceland, and Hvitſerk in Greenland, could be ſeen from the middle of this

GREENLAND. maintained till the beginning of the fifteenth century, the laſt of ſeventeen biſhops being named in 1406: and in that century, by the gradual increaſe of the arctic ice, the colony appears to have been completely impriſoned by the frozen ocean; while on the weſt a range of impaſſable mountains and plains, covered with perpetual ice, precluded all acceſs. The ancient ſettlement contained ſeveral churches and monaſteries, the names and poſitions of which may be traced in the map by Torfaeus; from which it would ſeem that the colony extended over about 200 miles in the S. E. extremity. On the weſt ſome ruins of churches have alſo been diſcovered. In more recent times the weſtern coaſt was chiefly explored by Davis, and other Engliſh navigators; but there was no attempt to ſettle any colony. A pious Norwegian clergyman, named Egede, having probably read the book of Torfaeus publiſhed in 1715, was deeply impreſſed with the melancholy ſituation of this colony, if it ſhould be found to exiſt; and in 1721 proceeded to the weſtern ſhore, where he continued till 1735, preaching the goſpel to the natives, his benevolent example having been ſince followed by ſeveral miſſionaries. The ſect called Moravians began their ſettlements about thirty years after, being chiefly thoſe of New Hernhuth and Lichtenfels. It is ſaid that the country is inhabited as far as 76°; but the Daniſh and Moravian ſettlements are chiefly in the S. W., though at one time there appear to have been a factory as far north as 73°. The natives have no conception of what we call Baffin's Bay: but ſay that in the north of their country there is a narrow ſtrait which divides it from the continent of America.*

This dreary country may be ſaid to conſiſt of rocks, ice, and ſnow; but in the ſouthern parts there are ſome ſmall junipers, willows, and birch. There are rein-deer, and ſome dogs reſembling wolves, with arctic foxes, and polar bears. Hares are common; and the walrus, and five kinds of ſeals, frequent the ſhores. The birds, particularly ſea

channel; but this is a doubtful tradition. See the valuable voyages by order of the French king in 1771 and 1772, for the illuſtration of various provinces in navigation and geography; Paris, 1778, 4to. i. 264. ii. 244. Some mountains of Greenland may however be ſeen at the diſtance of forty or ſixty leagues. Crantz, vol. i. p. 8.

* Mr. Pennant, A. Z. ccxcii. obſerves that the Yarmouth whale fiſhers, who proceed as far as Diſko Bay, give no intelligence concerning Baffin's Bay.

and

and water fowl, are tolerably numerous; as are the fiſh; and the in- GREENLAND.
ſects exceed ninety.

What is called the *ice blink* is an amazing congeries of ice, at the mouth of an inlet, the ſplendor of which is diſcerned at the diſtance of many leagues. It is ſaid to extend in magnificent arches for about twenty-four miles. The ſhort ſummer is very warm, but foggy; and the northern lights diverſify the gloom of winter. What is called the froſt ſmoke burſts from cracks in the frozen ocean. The natives are ſhort, with long black hair, ſmall eyes, and flat faces, being a branch of the Iſkimos, or American Samoieds: it is ſuppoſed that they do not now exceed ten thouſand, the number having been greatly reduced by the ſmall-pox. Their canoes, in which one man proceeds to kill ſeals, are of a ſingular conſtruction, and have ſometimes been wafted as far as the Orkneys. The higheſt mountains are on the weſt ſide; and the three pinacles of what is called the Stag's Horn are viſible from ſea at the diſtance of forty or ſixty leagues. Crantz obſerves that the rocks are very full of clefts, commonly perpendicular, and ſeldom wider than half a yard, filled with ſpar, quartz, talc, and garnets. The rocks are generally rather vertical or little inclined, conſiſting of granite, with ſome ſand ſtone and lapis olaris. Our author's imperfect mineralogy alſo indicates micacious ſchiſtus, coarſe marble, and ſerpentine; with aſbeſtos and amianthus, cryſtals, and black ſchorl. It is ſaid that fluate of argill, a new ſubſtance, has been recently found in Greenland; perhaps this is the ſoft tranſparent ſtone of Crantz. The lapis olaris is of ſingular utility in Greenland, and the north of America, being uſed for lamps and culinary utenſils. The ſoil conſiſts of unfertile clay or ſand. The winter is very ſevere; and the rocks often burſt by the intenſity of the froſt. Above 66° the ſun does not ſet in the longeſt days, and at 64° is not four hours beneath the horizon.

LABRADOR.

THIS large extent of coaſt was ſo named by the Portugueſe navigator who made the firſt diſcovery. In the inland parts there were American

LABRADOR. ſavages, and on the coaſts Iſkimos; but the former have moſtly retired to the ſouth, and even the latter ſeem gradually to withdraw: neither people had the ingenuity of the Laplanders. There were here only a few factories, till the Moravian clergy formed little ſettlements, particularly at Nain, about 1764. To theſe miſſionaries we are indebted for the diſcovery of that elegant irideſcent felſpar, called the Labrador ſtone. It is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered in ſailing through ſome lakes,* where its bright hues were reflected from the water. The moſt rare colour is the ſcarlet. Mr. Cartwright, who reſided at intervals nearly ſixteen years in this deſolate country, has publiſhed a minute and prolix journal, which however gives a curious picture of its ſtate, and appearances along the coaſt, for the inland parts have never been explored.[1] His Indians ſeem to be Iſkimos, and their manners are very filthy. He remarks that the grouſe not only change their colour in the winter, but that they then gain a large addition of white feathers. The porcupines reſemble the beaver in ſize and ſhape; and he obſerved wolvereens.[2] He who wiſhes to ſtudy the manners of bears may here find ample ſatisfaction. At a cataract, ſurrounded with elders, ſpruces, firs, larches, birch, and aſpin, many ſalmon aſcend, and the bears aſſemble in numbers to catch their favourite prey. Some dive after the fiſh, and do not appear till at the diſtance of ſeventy or eighty yards. Others ſeem to be loungers, who only come to ſee what is going forwards, and to enjoy the promenade and the ſpectacle. Our author counted thirty-two white bears, and three black ones.[3] Rein deer alſo abound, and their veniſon is excellent. Mr. Cartwright contradicts the received accounts of the beaver, aſſerting that he never eats fiſh nor any animal food; but lives on the leaves and bark of ſuch trees and ſhrubs as have not a reſinous juice, and the roots of the water lily.[4] Their ſagacity is not ſo great as is generally ſuppoſed; but there is ſomething ſo ſingular in their erect movements, that an illiterate obſerver pronounced them to be "enchanted Chriſtians." Even the peaceable Iſkimos are liable to

* A large inland ſea, or lake, is laid down by D'Anville, which has recently been copied under the appellation of a New Sea.

[1] Newark, 1792, 3 vols. 4to.

[2] Ib. i. 278. ii 58.

[3] Ib. 346.

[4] iii. 24.

conteſts; and, about 1736, in a quarrel concerning a young woman, a furious ſlaughter aroſe, in which neither ſex nor age were ſpared. At the cloſe of his third volume Mr. Cartwright gives a general idea of the country, and a thermometrical journal. So far as diſcovered, Labrador is generally hilly, and even mountainous; but the ſouthern parts might be improved, though it would be difficult to guard againſt the white bears and wolves; and cattle muſt be houſed for nine months in the year. The eaſtern coaſt exhibits a moſt barren and iron-bound appearance, the rocky mountains riſing ſuddenly from the ſea, with ſpots of black peat earth, producing ſtunted plants. Rivers, brooks, lakes, pools, and ponds, are abundant, rich in fiſh, and frequented by innumerable birds. Though ſprings be rare, the waters being moſtly diſſolved ſnow, yet ſwelled throats are unknown, though frequent in the alpine countries of Europe and Aſia. The eaſtern coaſt alſo preſents thouſands of iſlands, covered with flocks of ſea fowl, particularly eider ducks; and in the larger iſles there are deer, foxes, and hares. The fiſh are ſalmon, trout, pike, barbel, eels, and others. Inland the air is milder; there are many trees, and ſome ſymptoms of fertility. The plants are wild celery, ſcurvy-graſs, reddocks, and Indian ſallad. There are ſome appearances of iron; and the Iſkimos now collect the Labrador ſpar on the ſhores of the ſea and lakes, for the rocks have not been diſcovered. Perhaps this ſpar was the ſhining ſtone brought from Labrador by one of our early navigators, as a ſpecimen of gold ore. The birds are common to arctic regions, and the animals are moſtly of the fur kind, in which trade our author was engaged. The natives are mountaineers and Iſkimos; the former reſembling gipſies, with ſomewhat of French features from a mixture of Canadian blood. They chiefly live on rein deer, and alſo kill foxes, martins, and beavers. They live in wigwams, a kind of tents covered with deer ſkin and birch rind; and are a ſort of Roman Catholics, being anxious to viſit the prieſts at Quebec. The Iſkimos are the ſame people with the Greenlanders, whoſe manners are minutely deſcribed by Crantz. They uſe ſledges drawn by dogs, as in Aſia. Remains of ſeals and oily ſubſtances have a remarkable effect on the ground, ſo as to produce rich crops of graſs on ſpots formerly only ſprinkled with heath. LABRADOR.

HUD-

HUDSON'S BAY.

Hudson's Bay.

The inland ſea commonly called Hudſon's Bay was explored in 1610; and a charter for planting and improving the country, and carrying on trade, was granted to a company in 1670. The Hudſon's Bay Company has ſince retained a claim to moſt extenſive territories, on the weſt, ſouth, and eaſt, of that inland ſea, ſuppoſed to extend from 70° to 115°, and allowing the degree only thirty miles, the length will be 1350 g. miles, and the medial breadth about 350. This vaſt extent of ice and ſnow is however of little conſequence conſidered in itſelf; and it is not underſtood that the company gain great wealth. An able writer has alſo defended them againſt the invidious charge of obſtructing geographical knowledge for the ſake of commercial monopoly.[5] The journey of Mr. Hearne is indeed a manifeſt though tardy proof of the contrary. The annual exports are about 16,000l.; and the returns, which yield a conſiderable revenue to government, perhaps amount to 30,000l. The North-weſt Company, lately eſtabliſhed at Montreal, has alſo conſiderably reduced the profits; but an enquiry into the ſtate of this company, and of their territories, might be an object of ſome importance, and might perhaps lead to great improvements in the mode of conducting the commerce, and deriving every poſſible advantage from theſe extenſive territories and ſeas. The eſtabliſhment of factories, here called forts, and which ſometimes contain ſmall garriſons, and other peculiar circumſtances, ſeem more adapted to the powers of a commercial company, than of private traders; and even the example and ſucceſs of the North-weſt Company ſeem to authorize that of Hudſon's Bay. But they ought ſtrictly to attend to the character of their ſervants, who, as Mr. Cartwright obſerves, will ſometimes kill an Indian in preference to a deer.

The regions around Hudſon's Bay, and that of Labrador, have, by a miſerable compliment to the parent country, been ſometimes called New Britain, a name not admitted in French or Engliſh maps. The parts on the weſt of Hudſon's Bay have alſo been called New North and South

[5] Introduction to Cook's laſt Voyage.

Wales;

Wales; while that on the eaſt is ſtyled Eaſt Main. In the ſouth, James's Bay ſtretches inland about 300 miles by about 150 in breadth; and the moſt valuable ſettlements are in that vicinity, as Albany fort, Mooſe fort, and Eaſt Main factory. Further to the ſouth, and on the confines of Upper Canada, are Brunſwick houſe, Frederick houſe; and ſome others, which, perhaps, belong to the North-weſt Company. In the north, Severn houſe is at the mouth of a large river, which ſeems to flow from the lake of Winnipic. York fort ſtands on Nelſon river; and ſtill further to the North is Churchill fort, which ſeems the furtheſt ſettlement in that direction.* To the weſt the Hudſon's Bay Company had extended little further than Hudſon's houſe; while the ſuperior ſpirit of the North-weſt company has nearly approached the Pacific.† The moſt important rivers are the Nelſon or Saſkaſhawin, and the Severn; the comparative courſe of the latter ſcarcely exceeding 400 B. miles, but of great breadth and depth. In the ſouth the Albany, Mooſe, Abitib, and Harricana, are the moſt conſiderable; but all the rivers are impeded with falls and ſhoals. Near that ſingular inlet called Cheſterfield there are many lakes, but the barbarous names would neither edify nor entertain the reader; nor is it likely that they ſhould ever become memorable in natural or civil hiſtory. The ſea of Hudſon commonly preſents bold rocky ſhores; but at intervals there are marſhes and large beaches. There are ſeveral high iſlands, the largeſt of which in the north has been little explored; and in what is called Baffin's Bay (if ſuch a ſea exiſt), ſome maps and charts admit a very large central iſland called James Iſland, which others entirely reject.

Hudson's Bay.

Even in lat. 57° the winters are extremely ſevere; the ice on the rivers is eight feet thick, and brandy coagulates. The rocks burſt with a horrible noiſe, equal to that of heavy artillery, and the ſplinters are thrown to an amazing diſtance.[6] Mock ſuns, and haloes, are not unfrequent; and the ſun riſes and ſets with a large cone of yellowiſh light.

* Churchill fort was built in 1715. It is alſo called Fort Prince of Wales.

† The boundary between the Hudſon's Bay Company and Canada is underſtood to follow the ridge that gives ſource to the rivers flowing N. and S. as far as Lake Annipeg; whence lat. 49° is ſaid to form the limit.

[6] Pennant, A. Z. ccxcvi.

Hudson's Bay. The aurora borealis diffuſes a variegated ſplendour, which equals that of the full moon; and the ſtars ſparkle with fiery redneſs. The fiſh in Hudſon ſea are far from numerous; and the whale fiſhery has been attempted without ſucceſs. There are few ſhell fiſh; and the quadrupeds and birds correſpond with thoſe of Labrador and Canada. The northern indigenes are Iſkimos; but there are other ſavages in the ſouth: and the factories are viſited by ſeveral tribes.*

CENTRAL PARTS.

Till the journey of Mr. Hearne, an officer of the Hudſon's Bay Company, in 1771, and the more difficult and laborious enterprizes of Mr. Mackenzie in 1789 and 1793; little was known concerning the interior parts of North America. In 1746 D'Anville lays down, with conſiderable accuracy, the Sea of Canada, or the three great conjunct lakes. He cloſes with the Lake of the Woods; and a river (now called Winnipic) runs to the N., while from the ſame lake a large river proceeds to the W. "diſcovered by a ſavage called Ochagac," but which does not exiſt. Not far to the S. of the Lake of the Woods he places the Miſſiſſippi, but ſays that the ſources are unknown; they are now marked on that very ſpot. After a few other poſitions in that vicinity, he declares his ignorance of the country further to the weſt. Thus the great lakes of Winnipic, of the Hills, and the Slave lake, with the immenſe ranges of mountains, and other important features, were unknown to this able geographer, who was maſter of all the knowledge of his time. The lake of Winnipic appears to have been diſcloſed to European notice about 1760, by furriers from Canada; and much was ſaid of an

* The tenth chapter of Mr. Hearne's journey may be conſulted for an account of the animals and vegetables. A dwarf larch is here called the juniper. The wiſha-capucca is called American tea, being drank in infuſion. Mr. Hearne obſerves, p. 51, that the American ſavages always enjoy, and even laugh at, the ſight of diſtreſs or pain. Ulloa marks it as characteriſtic of thoſe in S. America, that they inflict the greateſt cruelties with perfect indifference. On any dangerous illneſs, p. 203, the patient is left to periſh alone. It is a favourite paſtime of the women to kill a captive woman or child, p. 266.

imaginary

imaginary large river called the Bourbon; which may however have been the Saſkaſhawin. CENTRAL PARTS.

Mr. Hearne performed his journies in the years 1769—1772; but his book did not appear till 1795. He proceeded from fort Prince of Wales, or Churchill, and explored a group of lakes, called Doobant and other names, near Cheſterfield inlet; and, further to the weſt, a lake of great extent, which he calls Athapuſcow, the centre being in long. 125°, lat. 62°; being evidently the Slave lake of Mr. Mackenzie, in the ſame latitude, but long. 115°. The Copper Mine river, which Mr. Hearne lays down in long. 120°, is by Mr. Arrowſmith aſſigned to long. 113°. This river flowing into the Arctic ocean was the moſt curious diſcovery of Mr. Hearne, whoſe journies ſeemed ſufficiently to demonſtrate that no north-weſt paſſage was to be expected. In his preface he expreſſes his opinion that the Copper river probably flows into an inland ſea like that of Hudſon;[7] which may alſo be the caſe with Mackenzie's river. Mr. Hearne's adventures on his new route are amuſing and intereſting. He met with many herds of muſk cattle, a curious ſpecies deſcribed and engraved by Mr. Pennant in his Arctic Zoology. On the 14th of July 1771 he at length arrived at the Copper river, where the ſavages who attended him murdered, in a ſhocking manner, ſome Iſkimo families; and on the 17th he was within ſight of the ſea. "I therefore ſet inſtantly about commencing my ſurvey, and purſued it to the mouth of the river; which I found all the way ſo full of ſhoals and falls, that it was not navigable even for a boat, and that it emptied itſelf into the ſea over a ridge or bar. The tide was then out; but I judged from the marks which I ſaw on the edge of the ice, that it flowed about twelve or fourteen feet, which will only reach a little way within the river's mouth. The tide being out, the water in the river was perfectly freſh; but I am certain of its being the ſea, or ſome branch of it, by the quantity of whalebone and ſeal-ſkins which the Iſkimos had at their tents, and alſo by the number of ſeals which I ſaw on the ice. At the mouth of the river the ſea is full of iſlands and ſhoals, as far as I could ſee with the aſſiſtance of a good pocket teleſcope. The ice was not then broke up, but was melted away for about three quarters of a mile from the Hearne's Journey.

[7] Page vii.

Central Parts.

main ſhore, and to a little diſtance round the iſlands and ſhoals."[8] He found the Iſkimos here of a dirty copper colour, and rather ſhorter in ſtature than thoſe to the ſouth. Even here the kettles are made of lapis ollaris, of a mixed brown and white; and their hatchets and knives are of copper. The dogs have ſharp erect ears, ſharp noſes, and buſhy tails, being a fine breed of that ſort. Many kinds of ſea-fowl were obſerved; and in the ponds and marſhes ſwans, geeſe, curlews, and plovers. The quadrupeds are muſk cattle, rein-deer, bears, wolves, wolvereens, foxes, alpine hares, ſquirrels, ermines, mice. Mr. Hearne afterwards viſited one of the copper mines, about thirty miles S. E. from the mouth of the river, being merely a hill which ſeems to have been rent by an earthquake, or perhaps by ſubterranean water. The copper is found in lumps, and is beaten out by the help of fire and two ſtones. Upon his return Mr. Hearne paſſed further to the weſt; and on the 24th of December 1771 he arrived at the north ſide of the great lake of Athapuſcow,* where our traveller obſerved a ruſtling noiſe to proceed from the northern lights, and he confutes ſeveral popular tales concerning the beaver. The lake of Athapuſcow is very full of iſlands, filled with tall trees like maſts, as appears from his curious view of a part of it. The natives reported it to be 120 leagues in length, from eaſt to weſt; and 20 wide. It is ſtored with quantities of fiſh, pike, trout, perch, barbel, and two ſorts called by the natives tittameg and methy. The northern ſhore conſiſts of confuſed rocks and hills, but the ſouthern is level and beautiful; and there are many wild cattle and mooſe deer, the former, particularly the bulls, being larger than the Engliſh black cattle. The hunch on the back is an elongation of the wither bones, according to Mr. Hearne. Proceeding ſouthward he arrived at the great Athapuſcow river, which he found about two miles in breadth, being evidently the Slave river of Mr. Mackenzie. Our traveller then paſſed eaſtward without any remarkable diſcovery, and arrived at Fort Prince of Wales 30th June 1772.

[8] Ib. 162. Why not taſte the water? It might have been a large freſh water lake. Seals are common in the ſea of Baikal; and the whalebone may have been procured in barter. The ſuppoſed tide is not unknown in high winds upon the ſouthern lakes.

* Rather *Athabaſca*.

Mr.

Mr. Mackenzie's journies were of yet more conſequence. In June 1789 he embarked in a canoe at fort Chepiwian, on the ſouth of the Lake of the Hills, and proceeded along the Slave river to the Slave lake, whence he entered a river now called after his own name, till he reached the Arctic ocean. The Slave river he deſcribes as very conſiderable, and ſays it received its name from an Indian tribe, called ſlaves merely from their extreme ferocity.* The Slave lake he found covered with ice in the month of June, and the chief fiſh were carp, white fiſh, trout, and pike. He juſtly remarked it as extraordinary that land, covered with ſpruce, pine, and white birch, when waſted by fire produces nothing but poplars, where none before appeared. The river called after his name is ſometimes fifty fathoms in depth, though not above three hundred yards in breadth. On the 11th of July the ſun remained all night conſiderably above the horizon; and ſoon after he ſeems to have reached the ſea; but our traveller's account is here not a little perplexed. It appears however that his river has a wide eſtuary, with many iſlands, one of which Mr. Mackenzie called Whale Iſland, as he here ſaw ſome whales as large as his canoe, and larger than the largeſt porpoiſe.[9] Such fiſh are however never obſerved in lakes; and there ſeems to be ſufficient indications that he had reached the ſea. Though ſo far to the north, there ſeem to be other ſavages beſides Iſkimos; and it would appear from their report that there is another large river on the weſtern ſide of the Rocky Mountains, which alſo joins the Arctic Ocean.[10] On his return Mr. Mackenzie obſerved petroleum, or rather maltha, and a large bed of coal on fire; and on the 12th September 1789 our author finiſhed his firſt voyage, which had occupied one hundred and two days. A complete confirmation thence ariſes that there is no northern communication between the Atlantic and the Paciſic; except at ſo high a latitude that it muſt be impeded by perpetual ice.

CENTRAL PARTS.
Mackenzie's Journeys.
1. To the Arctic ſea.
Slave Lake.

Equally important and intereſting was Mr. Mackenzie's ſecond voyage, for, though inland, the term is proper, as both were conducted on large rivers, by means of canoes. Our enterpriſing traveller left fort

2. To the Paciſic.

* The appellation and its ſource are alike ridiculous; and a new nomenclature is wanted.

[9] Mackenzie's Voyages, London, 1801, 4to. p. 64.

[10] P. 83.

CENTRAL PARTS.

Chepiwian on the 10th October 1792, and proceeded up the Peace river, or Unjiga, in a S. W. direction, till he reached a high land beyond the Stoney or Rocky Mountains, the height of which he computes at 817 yards. After tranſporting their canoe, with ſome difficulty, they embarked on a ſmall river on the other ſide, which ſoon brought them into the river Oregan, Columbia, or the Great River of the Weſt, the origin and courſe of which were before totally miſunderſtood. It is to be regretted that he did not purſue this river to its mouth: but after proceeding a conſiderable way he returned againſt the ſtream, and afterwards travelled to the Pacific ocean by land; and reached one of the numerous inlets lat. 52° 20′, by Mr. Arrowſmith's map of the expedition. His adventures and difficulties, on this new route, are ſtriking and ſingular, and will amply reward the reader's curioſity. On the weſt of the Unjiga beautiful ſcenery was obſerved, interſperſed with hill and lawn, with groves of poplars, and enlivened with vaſt herds of elks on the uplands, and of buffaloes on the plains. The laſt ſo much abound, that in ſome places the country reſembles a ſtall-yard. That fierce ſpecies called the grizzly bear was alſo ſeen. The Unjiga is ſometimes from 4 to 800 yards wide; and the cold was often extreme, rather from the height of the general level than that of the mountains, which does not exceed 1500 feet. Among the birds obſerved were blue jays, yellow birds, and beautiful humming birds. Beavers are common, and tracks of mooſe deer were remarked. Where they reached the Oregan, it was was about 200 yards wide. Towards the Pacific the natives are fairer than in the other parts of North America; and one man was at leaſt ſix feet four inches in height. Their eyes are not dark, like thoſe of the other Indians, but grey, with a tinge of red. The men wear only a robe made of the bark of the cedar tree, rendered as fine as hemp, ſometimes with borders of red and yellow threads; and the women add a ſhort apron. Some of their canoes are forty-five feet in length, the gun-wale being inlaid with the teeth of the ſea otter, not with human teeth, as Captain Cook ſuppoſed. On the 20th of July 1793 Mr. Mackenzie reached an arm of the ſea where the tide was abated, and had left a large ſpace covered with ſea weed.[11] In Septem-

[11] P. 341.

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ber 1793 he returned to fort Chepiwian, after an abſence of eleven months. CENTRAL PARTS.

Theſe voyages having conſiderably improved the geography of North America, it was thought proper to narrate them at ſome length. It is to be regretted that ſome obſcurity ariſes from the want of a diſtinct nomenclature, and the equivocal uſe or abuſe of ſome of the appellations. Thus the Athapuſco lake of Hearne is undoubtedly the Slave lake of Pond, who is ſaid to have been the firſt diſcoverer, and of Mackenzie; while the laſt ſeems to avoid that name, which is indeed baniſhed from his maps, or confined to a ſmall pool at the weſt end of the Lake of the Hills, which laſt ſome ſuppoſe to be the genuine Athapuſco. In like manner there are three lakes, called by the ſame name of Winnipeg. Does this ſtrange confuſion, unknown to the geography of any other country, ariſe from the natives, from the inattention of the relators, or from commercial jealouſy, which would obſcure or reſtrict the diſcoveries of other traders?* However this be, from theſe and other diſcoveries communicated by officers of the Hudſon's Bay Company, the geography of North America begins to open with more clearneſs, as may be judged from Mr. Arrowſmith's laſt map, 1802. The large northern lakes are now laid down with ſuperior accuracy. The great river Unjiga, after penetrating the weſtern range of mountains, flows N. E. towards the Lake of the Hills, whence it receives a ſhort but large ſtream; and being afterwards abſurdly enough ſtyled the Slave river, it bends N. W. to the great Slave lake, whence it iſſues by the name of Mackenzie's river. Such at leaſt is Mr. Mackenzie's idea;[12] Remarks. River Unjiga.

* According to Mr. Mackenzie, p. 122, the word *athabaſca*, in the language of the Kniſtineaux, implies a flat low ſwampy country, ſubject to inundations; but he has not explained the original name of the Slave lake. The native words are however of ſuch a prodigious length, that it is often proper to drop them, but they ought to be ſhortened or exchanged for names that are proper and expreſſive, while the new appellations are often mean or ridiculous, and ſuch as never occur in Africa or Spaniſh America. Such are thoſe of the Indian tribes *Fall*, *Blackfoot*, *Blood*, *Inland*, *Beaver*, *Copper*, *Strong-bow*, *Mountain*, *Hare*, *Dog-ribbed*, &c. &c.: other unmeaning denominations are *Rocky* or *Stoney Mountains*, as if there were any mountains without rocks or ſtones; *Slave* lake, Lake of the *Hills*, &c. Theſe beautiful terms paſs from the French furriers of Canada into the page of geography! What would Milton ſay, who has often melodized his poetry with ſonorous geographical appellations? Can any poet, or claſſical author, uſe the poor and diſtorted nomenclature of the Pacific, or of North America?

[12] P. 216. 387.

and,

CENTRAL PARTS.

and, if accepted, the name of Unjiga ſhould be retained to its egreſs into the arctic ocean, after a comparative courſe of about 1700 Britiſh miles.

Saſkaſhawin.

Next in conſequence is the Saſkaſhawin, riſing on the eaſtern ſide of the great range, and paſſing E. to the great lake of Winnipic, whence it again iſſues under the name of Nelſon river, and falls into Hudſon's Bay, after a comparative courſe of more than 1000 B. miles*.

Oregan.

A third great river now tolerably aſcertained is the Oregan, or Columbia, alſo called by the natives, Tacoutche Teſſe, whoſe courſe is now deſcribed as being to the S. inſtead of the W. and about 700 B. miles in length. There are doubtleſs other important rivers towards the weſt: and a conſiderable one, as before mentioned, ſeems to join the arctic ocean.

Miſſouri.

The genuine ſources of the Miſſouri, erroneouſly by the ſavages called the Miſſiſſippi, from the leaſt important ſtream, ſeem alſo to be clearly evidenced, from a journey of Mr. Fidler in the ſervice of the Hudſon's Bay Company; a diſcovery which, as already explained, adds greatly to the length of that grand and intereſting river. The real direction and uniform extent of the great weſtern range of mountains, ſeem alſo to be clearly delineated.

Theſe obſervations were demanded by the preſent progreſſive ſtate of the geography of North America. In a more immediate view of the central parts, of this diviſion of the new continent, it muſt not be forgotten, that they are the ſeats of many native and unconquered tribes, whoſe manners have been ſo frequently deſcribed by a hoſt of travellers, that little needs be ſaid in a work of this limited nature. Their modes of hunting and warfare, their extreme cruelty towards their priſoners, the ſingularities of ſcalping, and the uſe of the calumet are ſufficiently known†. A more difficult topic would be an enumeration of the various tribes; and a claſſification according to their languages.

* The river Severn alſo ſeems to flow from the large lake of Winnipic; but the Saſkaſhawin, in the courſe above mentioned, would appear to have been the river Bourbon of the French; and it is ſaid that the Severn flows *into* the lake of Winnipic, from a ſmall lake which alſo ſends a ſtream to the ſea

† The feaſt of the dead has been deſcribed by Charlevoix and Lafitau. At this ſhocking ſolemnity the putrifying bodies are uncovered and expoſed. The ſame practice prevails in Patagonia; and ſeems peculiar to Africa and America.

By

By a ſtrange abuſe of terms we ſpeak familiarly of the ſavage *nations* of North America, while few of theſe pretended *nations* can aſpire to the name of a tribe, and the term clan, or even family, would be more appropriated*. The enumeration of theſe clans would be tedious; and a liſt of four hundred barbarous names would little intereſt the reader, except they could be claſſed according to languages. But a few remarks on the moſt noted tribes muſt not be omitted. The five Nations of the Engliſh writers are the Iroquois of the French, being the Mohawks, Oneydoes, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Sennekas; five clans joined in an old confederacy of offence and defence[13]. The Mohawks were on the ſouth of the river ſo called, in the province of New York; while the others extended towards the lake Ontario. The Hurons were on the eaſt of the lake of that name †. But, after the Mexicans, the chief tribe in North America was that of the Natchez, near the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, whoſe worſhip of the ſun, and other peculiarities, have been illuſtrated by Pratz, Charlevoix, and other writers ‡. In a work of more extent it might be proper to deſcribe the manners of this people, of the Five Nations, of the Central tribes, of the Iſkimos, and of the Weſtern Races on the Pacific. In a brief view of the native languages, it is unneceſſary to repeat, that the Iſkimos and Greenlanders are the ſame people with the Samoieds of Aſia §. The Algonkin was the moſt celebrated of the native languages, beginning at the gulf of St. Lawrence, and including a circuit of about 3000 miles. The Huron language, which was alſo that of the Five Nations, was of ſmaller extent, on the weſt of the Algonkin. Yet further to the weſt was the language of the Sioux, which was alſo that of the Kniſtineaux cor-

Central Parts.

Five Nations.

Natchez.

Languages.

* Mr. Adair's Hiſtory of the American Indians, London, 1775, 4to. is compoſed on the wretched ſyſtem that the Indians deſcended from the Iſraelites; and a few curious facts are rendered doubtful by the author's propenſity to hypotheſis. [13] Colden, p. 1.

† The pretended Doegg Indians, at firſt ſaid to have been diſcovered in Carolina, were afterwards removed towards the weſtern coaſt, where they were inſerted, with a ſuppoſititious lake, from an imaginary journey of a Mr. Lawrence in 1790. It is now admitted that they do not exiſt; and the fable ſeems to have ariſen from ſome of the Bretons, who ſettled in Acadia, having taught their language to ſome ſavages.

‡ The Natchez are now extinct, Imlay, p. 425.

§ The word Iſkimo is ſaid to imply an eater of raw fleſh, Charlevoix I. 273. The Sioux is a French corruption of Nadueſſis, Ib. 280.

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CENTRAL PARTS:

ruptly called Chriſtinaux, but properly Killiſtinons, originally ſeated on the north of Lake Superior [14]. But, according to Mr. Mackenzie the Killiſtinons were originally the ſame people with the Algonkins, or inhabitants of the Atlantic coaſt; while the Chepiwians, or Chepawas, and the numerous tribes who ſpeak their language, occupy the whole ſpace between the country of the Killiſtinons, and that of the Iſkimos, extending to the river Columbia, lat. 52°. By their own traditions they came from Siberia; while intelligent travellers, on the contrary, conſider the Techuks as proceeding from America: but ſuch interchanges of nations are not unfrequent in barbarous periods. The tribes near the ſource of the Miſſouri are ſaid to be from the ſouth, and their progreſs N. W. probably retiring from the Spaniſh power *. The language of the Natchez, and other nations in the Spaniſh territory, has not been ſufficiently illuſtrated; and in the iſthmus the dialects are ſaid to be various, and radically diſtinct, yet probably, on a nearer and more ſkilful examination, would be found to approach the Mexican: but no Pallas has ariſen to claſs or arrange the languages of America.

WESTERN COAST.

THE Ruſſians may be regarded as the firſt diſcoverers of the north-weſtern ſhores of America. To the iſles between Aſia and this continent they aſſign different names, as Andrenovian, &c. but in their own moſt recent maps one general appellation is ſubſtituted, that of the Aleutian Iſles. The furtheſt Aleutian Iſles, which form a chain from the American promontory of Alaſka, are alſo called the Fox iſles; while the neareſt Aleutian iſles of the Ruſſians are thoſe which we term Beering's and

[14] Charlevoix, I. 283. 276. 406.

* Mr. Mackenzie, p. cvii, has publiſhed a vocabulary of the Killiſtinon and Algonkin, which ſufficiently ſhews their identity. The Killiſtinons extend to the lake of the Hills and N. to the Iſkimos. Their manners are deſcribed by Mackenzie, p. xcii. For the Chepawas, ſee p. cxvi, where their chief reſidence is ſaid to be between lat. 60° and 65°, and long. 100° and 110°, but they reach to lat. 52° and long. 123°, where they join a diſtinct people on the ſhores of the Pacific. From the traditions, p. cxviii. it does not appear that the Chepawas came from Siberia; for how could they land at the Copper Mine river? The vocabulary of their language, p. cxxix, might be eaſily compared with that of the Aſiatic tribes.

But in the beſt Engliſh maps the name of Aleutian is reſtricted to the former*; and it is to Engliſh navigators that we are indebted for the preciſe geography of theſe regions, which have been ſtrangely embroiled by the erroneous aſtronomical obſervations of the Ruſſian captains. Our excellent Cook, in particular, greatly extended our knowledge; and he was followed by Meares, Dixon, Vancouver, La Perouſe, and other able navigators; and recently by Mackenzie, who has the ſingular merit of having firſt viſited the Pacific by an inland progreſs from the eaſt. WESTERN COAST.

This coaſt, as already mentioned, ſeems to be chiefly alpine; in which reſpect, and in its numerous creeks and iſles, it bears no ſmall reſemblance to Norway. The moſt remarkable mountain ſeems to be that called St. Elias by the Ruſſian navigators: and which, it is affirmed, has been viſible at ſea at no leſs a diſtance than about ſixty leagues. At *Port des François*, lat. 58°, 37′, La Perouſe obſerves that the primitive mountains of granite or ſlate riſe from the ſea, yet the ſummits are covered with perpetual ſnow, and immenſe glaciers wind through the cavities [15]. The natives he has minutely deſcribed; and ſays that he has always found ſavages "barbarous, deceitful, and wicked." This has been the uniform tenet of experience; but it is only in recent times that profound ignorance has aſpired to the name of philoſophy†. Their moſt ſingular practice is the ſlitting and diſtending of the under lip, ſo as to beautify the females with two mouths‡. The lofty mountains, which La Perouſe computes at more than ten thouſand feet in height, terminate at Croſs Sound; but the alpine ridges continue, though of ſmaller elevation, and probably extend with few interruptions as far as California. Mr. Mackenzie in lat. 53°, and Vancouver in a more ſouthern latitude, found the ſame mountainous appearances. What is called the coaſt of New Albion has been faintly explored; and the Spaniſh power is

* In the Ruſſian form *Aleoutſkoie*. The Ruſſian *ſkoie* is a poſſeſſive adjective, as *an* in the Latin, &c. thus *Harley*, *Harleian* library, &c. which in Ruſſian would be *Harleyſkoie*.

[15] II. p. 129.

† It was a watchmaker's apprentice, having ſeen no book but a French Plutarch, (See Rouſſeau's Confeſſions) who firſt praiſed ſavages, and decried civilized life. The practical conſequences of this abominable doctrine may be obſerved in the actions of its diſciples, the *ſans culottes*, or ſavages of Paris, the moſt ignorant wretches of a great and civilized city.

‡ The Mexican monarchs appear in paintings with ornaments fixed to the under lip.

Botany. always an obſtruction to ſcience. The inhabitants of the more northern regions of this coaſt appear to be Iſkimos. In the part through which Mr. Mackenzie paſſed, he found ſome of the tribes of a low ſtature, with round faces, high cheek-bones, black eyes and hair; the complexion of a ſwarthy yellow. Nearer the Pacific the people, as already mentioned, had grey eyes tinged with red; and their manners are minutely illuſtrated in his narrative.

Botany of Canada and the North.

The indigenous plants of the regions north of the river St. Lawrence form a ſingular mixture of the Floras of Lapland and the United States. From the intenſely cold winters and hot ſummers of this extenſive appendage to the Britiſh empire, it might, indeed, be *à priori* expected that the annual plants, and ſuch as are capable of being ſheltered in winter under the ſnow, ſhould be, for the moſt part, the ſame as thoſe of more ſouthern countries; while the trees and ſhrubs, having to brave the utmoſt rigour of the climate unprotected, ſhould be characteriſtic of the Arctic regions. A regard to this circumſtance will enable us to explain the ſeeming contradictions in the agriculture of Canada, which are ſcarcely credible by the mere uninformed Engliſh farmer, ſuch as that gourds and water melons ſhould be a common field crop, while the hardieſt winter corn is almoſt always deſtroyed by the cold.

The foreſts are numerous, but the trees never attain that bulk and luxuriance of growth which diſtinguiſhes them in the ſouthern ſtates. The family of firs and evergreens compoſe perhaps the largeſt proportion; and of theſe the principal are, the Silver leaved fir, the Weymouth pine, the Canadian pine, the hemlock ſpruce fir, and the white cedar of Canada (thuya occidentalis), which muſt not be confounded with the white cedar of the UnitedStates (cupreſſus diſticha). Next to theſe in importance are the ſugar maple, the red maple, the birch, the American lime and elm, the iron wood and cercis Canadenſis. The numerous ſpecies of oaks are either wholly unknown, or are contracted into deſpicable ſhrubs, all the ſhip timber of Canada being brought from the New England provinces. The ſaſſafras, laurel, and red mulberry, are

alſo met with in the iſlands of the St. Lawrence, but in a ſimilar ſtate of depreſſion, the whole of the ſummer's growth being generally deſtroyed by the next winter. The aſh, the yew, and mountain aſh are found in the northern tracts both of the old and new world; but the light feſtoons of wild vine, with its pendant cluſters, and the fragrant bloſſoms of the Syrian aſclepias, form a characteriſtic feature of the foreſt ſcenery of Canada. BOTANY.

The lilium Canadenſe, ſimilar to the Sarrane lily of Kamtſchatka, and the ginſeng (panax quinquefolium), common to America and Tartary, point out a ſimilarity between the northern Floras of Aſia and America.

The juniper, the cranberry, the bearberry (arbutus uva urſi), the black and red currant, the raſpberry, and wild cherry, which have already been mentioned as natives of Lapland and the whole North of Europe, are found in great plenty in ſimilar ſituations on the oppoſite ſhores of the Atlantic.

Of the other Canadian plants little is known, and a meagre catalogue of Linnæan names would contribute equally little to the amuſement as to the inſtruction of the general reader. One, however, the zizania aquatica, deſerves to be mentioned: this graminaceous vegetable is nearly allied to the rice; it grows abundantly in all the ſhallow ſtreams, and its mild farinaceous ſeeds contribute eſſentially to the ſupport of the wandering tribes of Indians, and to the immenſe flights of ſwans, geeſe, and other aquatic fowls, which reſort hither for the purpoſe of breeding. Productive as it is, and habituated to the climate, inhabiting alſo ſituations which refuſe all other culture, it is ſurpriſing that the European ſettlers have as yet taken no pains to improve a plant which ſeems intended by nature to become at ſome future period the bread corn of the North.

THE AMERICAN ISLANDS,

OR

WEST INDIES.

THESE iſlands, ſo important to commerce, are Cuba, St. Domingo, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, all of conſiderable extent; and followed by the diſtinguiſhed group called the Antilles, Caribbee, or Leeward Iſlands, but more properly by the French, Windward Iſlands, as being towards the eaſt, the point of the trade wind*. To the ſouth of this group is Trinidad, a recent Engliſh acquiſition; to the weſt of which ſtretch the Leeward Iſlands of the Spaniards. In the N. E. of this grand aſſemblage are the Bahama or Lucayos Iſlands, narrow and barren ſtrips of land, formerly frequented by pirates, till ſubjected to the legal power of England; but chiefly remarkable as having been the firſt diſcovery of Colon. The reſtricted nature of this work will not admit of a deſcription adequate to the importance of theſe iſlands, which is the leſs to be regretted, as the ſubject is already familiar to moſt readers. The beſt geographical order appears to be that ſuggeſted by their natural extent and importance, independent of the partial and fleeting diſtinction of European poſſeſſion.

CUBA.

This noble iſland is not leſs than 700 B. miles in length; but the medial breadth does not exceed 70. On his firſt voyage, after exploring the

* Our mariners apply both terms to the Caribbee Iſlands; the Windward ending with Martinico, the Leeward reaching from Dominica to Porto Rico. Edwards, i. 5.

Bahama Iſles, Colon diſcovered Cuba;[1] but though delighted with the beauty of the ſcenery, and amazed at the luxuriant fertility of the ſoil, he ſoon abandoned it to proceed to Hayti, afterwards called Hiſpaniola or St. Domingo, where he expected to find a greater abundance of gold; which, with gems and ſpices, formed the only objects of the early navigators. While Hiſpaniola was ſelected as a factory to ſecure the acquiſition of gold, it was not certainly known whether Cuba was an iſland, or part of the continent, till 1508, when it was circumnavigated by Ocampo; and in 1511 it was conquered by three hundred Spaniards under Velaſquez.[2] The number of the inhabitants was no doubt exaggerated, as even in our enlightened times happened with regard to Otaheite, and other new diſcoveries. The Spaniards certainly did not atchieve miracles in their American conqueſts; nor was the awkward uſe of unwieldy cannon and fire arms, at that time, ſo fatal and preponderant a circumſtance as may be imagined. The Malays with their creeſes defy fire-arms. The natives were not only timid, but few; and nine tenths may be ſafely ſubtracted both from Spaniſh valour and Spaniſh cruelty.* Theſe reflections have been excited by the charge of extermination brought againſt the Spaniards of Cuba; while the natives equally vaniſh around all European colonies, the real deſtroying angels being the ſmall-pox, and ſpirituous liquors. Our Buccaneers have taught us to regard the Spaniards as bees, who muſt be deſtroyed to get at the honey; but if ever the cauſe of truth muſt be ſacrificed, it ſhould be offered at a nobler ſhrine than that of vulgar prejudices, or intereſted enmity. Cuba.

The induſtry of the Spaniards is far from being proverbial; yet ſuch is the fertility of Cuba, that it may be regarded as a moſt important and flouriſhing poſſeſſion. The quantity of ſugar is conſiderable; and the tobacco is eſteemed of a more exquiſite flavour than that of any other

[1] Robertſon's America, i. 122. [2] Ib. 249.

* Mendez de Pinto was a Portugueſe; but the ancient Spaniſh writers, tainted with the imagination of their inmates the Moors, were little leſs hyperbolical It is however ludicrous that their own exaggerations ſhould have led to the charges of cruelty and deſtruction. The noted Las Caſas, the Dominican friar, was a man of heated imagination; and his credit may be judged of by his aſſertion that a diſtrict of eighteen leagues in St. Domingo is watered by *twenty five thouſand* rivers! Charlevoix, ii. 373. Even the eyes of ſuch a witneſs cannot be believed.

part

Cuba. part of America. This, with the other large iſlands, were alſo called the Great Antilles, the origin of which term has been before explained; and they were alſo known by the name *Sotavento*, or the *Leeward Iſlands*, in contradiſtinction to the exterior group called *Barlovento*, or *Windward Iſlands*. Havanna, the capital, was built in 1519; and was taken in 1669 by Morgan, a celebrated Buccaneer. It again ſurrendered to the Engliſh in 1761, and treaſures were found of no ſmall amount. This extenſive iſland is divided by a chain of mountains paſſing E. and W. The rivers are of ſhort courſe, but there are ſeveral excellent harbours. Among the products muſt alſo be reckoned ginger, long pepper, maſtic, cocoa, manioc, and aloes. There are mines of excellent copper, which ſupply the other Spaniſh colonies with domeſtic utenſils; and gold is not unknown in the rivers. The foreſts abound with wild cattle and ſwine; and among the trees are ebony and mahogany. There is a governor-general; and eighteen juriſdictions are governed by diſtinct magiſtrates. The natural hiſtory of this large iſland is very defective, as is the caſe with all the Spaniſh poſſeſſions.

SAINT DOMINGO.

This iſland, the ſecond in the American archipelago, is now wholly poſſeſſed, at leaſt nominally, by the French; and is about 400 B. miles in length by 100 in breadth. Under the name of Hiſpaniola it was the firſt Spaniſh ſettlement in the new world. The French colony derived its origin from a party of Buccaneers, moſtly natives of Normandy, towards the middle of the ſeventeenth century; and the weſtern part was formally ceded to France by the peace of Ryſwick. So induſtrious and flouriſhing was this French colony, that it was termed the paradiſe of the Weſt Indies: and according to Mr. Edwards[3] in 1790 the population amounted to 30,831 whites, and about 480,000 negro ſlaves, the mulattoes, or free people of colour, being ſuppoſed to be 24,000; while the average exports before the revolution ſtood thus:

[3] Hiſtory of St. Domingo, 1797, 4to. p. 134. Reprinted in the third volume of his Weſt Indies, 1801, 4to.

Clayed

			Livres.	St. Domingo.
Clayed ſugar, - - -	lbs.	58,642,214	41,049,549	
Muſcovado, - - -	lbs.	86,549,829	34,619,931	
Coffee, - - - -	lbs.	71,663,187	71,663,187	
Cotton, - - - -	lbs.	6,698,858	12,397,716	
Indigo, - - -	hhds.	951,607	8,564,463	
Molaſſes, - - -	hhds.	23,061	2,767,320	
An inferior ſort of rum called taffia,	hhds.	2,600	312,000	
Raw hides, - - -	No.	6,500	52,000	
Tanned ditto, - - -	No.	7,900	118,500	
The total value at the ports of ſhipping in livres of St. Domingo, was - -			171,544,666	

being equal to 4,765,129l. ſterling money of Great-Britain.

The national aſſembly of France, unhappily conſiſting of philoſophers and not of men of buſineſs, paſſed ſome contradictory decrees concerning the rights of the mulattoes, or, as they are affectedly ſtyled, people of colour, to vote for repreſentatives. The ſmalleſt ray of political prudence might have informed them that the government of diſtant colonies ought not to have ſuffered the leaſt alteration, till years after that of the parent country were eſtabliſhed on a ſolid and laſting baſis. After many abſurd ſtruggles between the whites and mulattoes, on the 21ſt June 1793 three thouſand negro ſlaves, ſupported by the mulattoes, entered the capital city of Cape François, and perpetrated an univerſal maſſacre of the white men, women, and children. The abolition of ſlavery by the infatuated commiſſioners, in order to defend the iſland againſt the Engliſh, has had the effect that might have been foreſeen, the colony having been loſt, at leaſt for a ſeaſon, to European civilization and culture. The very nature and exiſtence of the negroes, and other ſavages, being akin to that of other ferocious animals, and their chief pleaſure to deſtroy, it would be in vain to expect any thing ſhort of deſolation from a negro colony; and the example being dangerous to our own poſſeſſions, a powerful fleet has ſailed from France, with our concurrence, in order to repeat the ſubjugation of this iſland, which will probably be found far more difficult than the firſt conqueſt.

Amidſt

St. Domingo. Amidſt the effervescence of zeal without knowledge, this may be a laſting beacon to legiſlators to ſtudy the real practical buſineſs of life, and the irradicable difference of character and diſpoſitions in the various races of men, to which infinite wiſdom has allotted diſtinct portions of the earth; leſt a negro ſhould repay the philoſopher's benefits by planting a dagger in his breaſt, with the favourite phraſe of "am I not a man and a brother?"*

JAMAICA.

This iſland was diſcovered by Colon, 1494, during his ſecond voyage; but was little explored till his fourth and laſt voyage, when he was unfortunately confined for many months on the north ſide of this iſle, by the loſs of his ſhips. The hiſtory of Jamaica under the Spaniſh power may be traced in the ample account of Mr. Edwards. In 1655 it fell into the hands of the Engliſh, by whoſe induſtry it has become one of the moſt flouriſhing of the Weſt Indian ſettlements. In ſize it is the third iſland in this archipelago, being about 170 B. miles in length,

* See vol. iii. of Edwards's Hiſtory of the Weſt Indies, in which, from this ſhocking example, he juſtly declares againſt the "monſtrous folly" of ſudden emancipation. "The Caribs of St. Vincent, and the Maroon negroes of Jamaica, were originally enſlaved Africans, and *what they now are*, the freed negroes of St. Domingo *will hereafter be*—ſavages in the midſt of ſociety; without peace, ſecurity, agriculture, or property; ignorant of the duties of life, and unacquainted with all the ſoft and endearing relations which render it deſireable; averſe to labour, though frequently periſhing of want; ſuſpicious of each other, and towards the reſt of mankind revengeful and faithleſs, remorſeleſs and bloody-minded; pretending to be free, while groaning beneath the capricious deſpotiſm of their chiefs, and feeling all the miſeries of ſervitude, without the benefits of ſubordination!" In our ill-adviſed expedition againſt St. Domingo, Hompeſch's regiment of huſſars was reduced, in little more than two months, from one thouſand to three hundred, and the 96th regiment periſhed to a man. About the end of 1797, of fifteen thouſand Britiſh and foreign troops, not more than three thouſand were left alive, and fit for ſervice; the loſs of ſeamen being computed at five thouſand; and the expenditure was five or ſix millions. ib. 385, 386. This is recorded as a general leſſon to European nations againſt any warfare in the Weſt Indies, while at half the expence any one of them might be in poſſeſſion of the ſouthern half of Africa. The negro troops in St. Domingo offered to join the Engliſh, on condition of utterly cutting off all the mulattoes, ib. 389. Such are the virtues of ſavages! The negro chief of St. Domingo is a ſlave called Touſſaint; and his army in 1797 was computed at 18,000 infantry and 1000 cavalry. He was oppoſed by the mulattoes, under Rigaud, to the amount of about 12,000. In October 1798 St. Domingo was abandoned by the Britiſh, who had been miſled by deſigning foreigners; a diſtinguiſhed feature, as Mr. Edwards remarks, in the conduct of the late war.

by

by 60 in breadth. It is divided into three counties, Cornwall in the weſt, Middleſex in the centre, and Surry in the eaſt. St. Jago or Spaniſh Town is regarded as the capital; while Kingſton is the chief ſea-port. The number of negroes is computed at 250,000, and the whites are probably 20,000, the free negroes and mulattoes 10,000. The chief exports are to Great Britain, Ireland, and North America, in ſugar, rum, coffee, indigo, ginger, and pimento, valued in 1787 at 2,000,000l. The intercourſe with Honduras, and the Moſquito ſhore, may now be regarded as abandoned; but ſome little trade is carried on with Spaniſh America by ſmall veſſels, which elude the vigilance of the guarda coſtas. The imports were computed at a million and a half, and ſlaves from Africa formed a conſiderable article.* There is a poll tax, with duties on negroes and rum, yielding more than 100,000l. annually; and the ordinary expences of government in 1788 were computed at 75,000l. The legiſlature conſiſts of the captain-general or governor; a council of twelve, nominated by the crown; and a houſe of aſſembly, containing forty-three members, elected by the freeholders:† the three chief towns, St. Jago, Kingſton, and Port Royal, returning three members, the other pariſhes two. The principal towns are within a ſhort diſtance of each other, Spaniſh Town being inland; while Kingſton is on the north ſide, and Port Royal on the weſt, of a conſiderable bay; the laſt being greatly reduced by earthquakes and other calamities. The climate, though tempered by the ſea breezes, is extremely hot; and the days and nights nearly of equal duration. A ridge of mountains, from eaſt to weſt, divides the iſland into two parts; and the landſcape often boaſts of peculiar beauties. In the north the ſoil is generally a chalky marl, producing a cloſe and clean turf, like an Engliſh lawn of the brighteſt verdure.† Towards the interior are foreſts, crowned by the blue ſum- JAMAICA.

* The maroon or runagate negroes have been ſent to Nova Scotia. The term *maroon* ſeems to be from the Spaniſh *Simaran*, ſaid to ſignify an ape; Edwards, iii. 304: but more probably from *ſima*, a mountain or dale, to which they retreat.

† Edwards, i. 214.

† What is called the brick mould contains ſuch a mixture of clay and ſand as might be adapted to the kiln; but the name has no connexion with the colour, which is hazel. Edwards, ii. 205. This is the beſt ſoil for ſugar canes next to the aſhy loam of St. Chriſtopher's; and is followed by the deep black mould of Barbadoes.

Jamaica. mits of the central ridge. What is called the Blue Mountain Peak riſes 7431 feet above the level of the ſea: and the precipices are interſperſed with beautiful ſavannas. There are about one hundred rivulets, of which the Black River, running to the ſouth, is the moſt conſiderable. Some ſulphureous and chalybeate ſprings likewiſe occur. It is ſaid that the Spaniards worked mines of copper, if not ſilver; and one of lead has been recently diſcovered. One of the moſt remarkable natural curioſities ſeems to be what is called the vegetable fly, a ſingular fungus, alſo found in one of the French Weſt India iſlands. It is ſaid to abound on the ſummit of a high rock, in the ſhape of a hay-cock, but called the Dolphin's Head, near the town of Lucea, in that N. W. extremity of the iſle called the pariſh of Hanover.[5] This rock riſes ſuddenly from a flat country; and the negroes heſitate to climb the lofty precipice. A more important object is the bread-fruit tree, which, with other uſeful plants, has been introduced by the exertions of Sir Joſeph Banks, than which none can be more beneficial, or more worthy of applauſe.[6]

PORTO RICO:

This iſle, which belongs to Spain, is about 120 B. miles in length, by 40 in breadth. Its ſize and conſequence are well known to the poſſeſſors, being a fertile, beautiful, and well watered country. The chief trade is in ſugar, ginger, cotton, hides; with ſome drugs, fruits, and ſweetmeats: and the northern part is ſaid to contain mines of gold and ſilver. Porto Rico was diſcovered by Colon in 1493; and was ſubjugated by Ponce de Leon, the firſt explorer of Florida, about 1509. The Spaniſh voyagers and authors, whoſe imagination magnified every feature of the new world, reported the native population at 600,000; while perhaps a real enumeration might have reduced them to 60,000, if not to 20,000.

5 From the information of a Jamaica planter.

6 See Mr. Edwards's Hiſtory of the Weſt Indies, 2d edit. v. i. p. xxv.

THE

THE CARIBBEE ISLANDS.

Caribbee Islands.

THIS range extends from Tobago, in the ſouth, to the Virgin iſlands in the north; and includes Barbadoes, which ſtands rather detached towards the eaſt, being about thirty-five degrees from the African iſlands of Cape Verd. The Caribbee Iſlands are of noted fertility and commercial advantage, the chief poſſeſſors being the Engliſh and French. Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Chriſtopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Grenada, Montſerat, Nevis, and the Virgin Iſles, are Britiſh; and Barbadoes by far the moſt important, as it is ſuppoſed to contain 17,000 white inhabitants; while the others rarely exceed 2000. The French Caribbee iſlands are Martinique, Guadeloupe, St. Lucie, Tobago, and ſome iſlets. The Danes poſſeſs St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John, which belong to the Virgin group: while the Swedes hold St. Bartholomew, and the Dutch St. Euſtatius. Of the whole group, Barbadoes and Guadeloupe appear to be the moſt important; and the laſt, including Grand Terre and Baſſe Terre, is the moſt conſiderable in ſize, being about 60 B. miles in length, by 25 in breadth. The Caribbee iſlands in general were diſcovered by Colon, on his ſecond voyage, when he viſited Dominica, Guadeloupe, and Antigua: but they were neglected by the Spaniards, eager in queſt of the gold of the larger iſlands. Barbadoes is ſaid to have been diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who having made no ſettlement, it was ſeized by the Engliſh in the reign of James I; and the foundation of James Town was laid in 1624. Though the iſle be only about twenty miles in length, and thirteen in breadth, yet this early Engliſh ſettlement has proſpered to a ſurpriſing degree, exporting about 10,000 hhds. of ſugar, and 6000 puncheons of rum, beſides cotton, ginger, &c.* Grenada, and moſt of the others, were originally ſettled by the French, towards the middle of the ſeventeenth century. St. Chriſtopher's was however a very early Britiſh ſettlement Antigua is alſo ſaid to have been planted by the Engliſh in 1632; while the French began to ſend colonies to Guadeloupe about 1630. The ſubſequent

Barbadoes.

* In a hurricane, 10th October 1780, the blacks and whites who periſhed were computed at 4326, and the damage at 1,320,564l. 15s. ſterling. Edwards, i, 347.

Caribbee Islands.

ſtruggles between the two powers, concerning theſe valuable iſlands, would form too complex a narrative for the preſent deſign. They are generally plain and fertile; being remarkably contraſted with the barrenneſs of the Bahama group. In ſome there are ſmall ranges of hills; and in Guadeloupe there appear to have been many volcanoes, the noted *Souffriere* being a kind of ſolfa terra, or vaſt maſs of ſulphur, emitting continual ſmoke. Dominica alſo contains ſeveral volcanoes. The products and exports of all theſe iſles are ſimilar, being ſugar, rum, coffee, cacao, indigo, cotton, &c.*

Under this head may alſo be arranged the ſmall group running parallel with the ſhore of South America, of which Curazao and Buenayre belong to the Dutch, who import African ſlaves, whom they ſell to the Spaniards on the continent.

Trinidad.

Under this diviſion may alſo be claſſed the iſland of Trinidad, recently ceded by Spain to Great Britain. This iſland is about 90 B. miles in length, while the medial breadth may be about 30. Colon landed here in 1498, when he diſcovered the mouth of the Orinoco; but the poſſeſſion was neglected till 1535. The climate is ſaid to be excellent, and remarkably free from hurricanes, which are dreadful ſcourges of the other American iſles.[7] Heavy rains prevail from the middle of May till the end of October; and there are ſo many rivers, that the dryneſs of the other half of the year is little regretted. Sometimes ſlight earthquakes are felt, but little dangerous. In the interior are four groups of mountains, which, with ſome other ridges towards the ſhores, are computed at a third part of the territory; the other two thirds are ſaid to conſiſt of a moſt fertile ſoil. The ſouthern coaſt is well adapted to the culture of coffee; and on the weſt is a large harbour, reputed very ſecure in all ſeaſons. Here are the Spaniſh ſettlements, the largeſt containing only about eighty huts. The cocoa trees periſhed in 1727, by

* St. Vincent's may be ſaid to be divided between the black Caribs, or deſcendants of revolted negroes, and the Britiſh, whoſe territory is divided into five pariſhes, the chief town being Kingſton; Edwards, i. 403. The cacao or chocolate nut grows on a tree reſembling a cherry. The pods, when green, are like cucumbers, and contain from twenty to thirty nuts, or rather kernels, not unlike almonds. The cakes ſeem mixed with flour and Caſtille ſoap. Edwards, ii. 308. There is a confuſion of *cacao* and *cocoa* in ſome authors.

7 Raynal, iv. 165.

the

the force as is ſaid of the northern winds; and any new plantations ought of courſe to be protected on that quarter by thick fences of foreſt trees.* Caribbee Islands.

THE BAHAMA OR LUCAYOS ISLANDS.

These iſles, though very numerous, and ſome of them of conſiderable ſize, are little known. They are ſaid to have been totally deſerted when, in 1672, a few Engliſhmen took poſſeſſion of the iſland which they called Providence.[8] But becoming a neſt of pirates, a force was ſent from England to ſubdue them; and a ſmall regular colony eſtabliſhed about 1720. The Engliſh in the Bahama iſlands are computed at three or four thouſand; half being ſettled in Providence, where there is a fort called Naſſau, and a ſmall harbour. The few exports are cotton, dying woods, live turtle, and ſalt. The ſoil ſeems to be naturally barren; and the narrow length of theſe iſles, much expoſed to the heat and the winds, accounts for their comparative inſignificance in this grand commercial archipelago.

Botany of the Weſt Indies.

Botany.

The Weſt Indian iſlands, from their tropical ſituation, and the great height of their mountains, command a large extent of temperature, and contain a proportional variety of native vegetables. We are far however from poſſeſſing a compleat flora of theſe countries: activity in ſcientific reſearch is not very congenial either with the manners or the commercial engagements of the inhabitants; and the peſtilential exhalations from the ſwamps, and the pathleſs intricacies of the foreſts, "ſtrangled with waſte fertility," that on all ſides gird the mountains, may well diſpirit the moſt adventurous naturaliſt.

Several of thoſe giant ſons of the foreſt that were noticed in the botany of India grow wild in theſe iſlands, and equal in ſtatelineſs their

* In the map of La Cruz the iſland of Trinidad appears in a very different form from that aſſigned by D'Anville, and commonly received. The length is from N. to S. inſtead of E. and W. and the chief ſettlement, S. Joſef de Oruna, is in the N. W. not far from the port de Eſpana, the beſt harbour. The length of the iſland is given at about 80 B. miles, by half the breadth.

[8] Ib. v. 64.

oriental

Botany. oriental brethren. Such are the Indian fig or banyan tree, at firſt a feeble ſtem, twining for ſupport round ſome neighbouring plant, but in the courſe of years becoming a grove by itſelf; the bombax ceiba, or wild cotton tree, from a ſingle hollowed trunk of which has formed a canoe able to contain a hundred men; the logwood; and the locuſt tree, moſt grateful in theſe torrid regions by its night of ſhade. Scarcely inferior to theſe are the wide-ſpreading mahogany, the braſiletto, the cabbage palm, the talleſt of all vegetables, riſing ſometimes in a ſtrait majeſtic column to the height of nearly two hundred feet, and the great fan palm, one of whoſe capacious leaves will ſhelter eight perſons from the rain or ſun. The cecropia deſerves mention, not only as a large timber tree, but for the excellence of its fruit, and its tough fibrous bark that is uſed for cordage; the tamarind tree for its airy elegance, and its acid pods, of no mean eſtimation in this ſultry climate. The laurus chloroxylum, or cog wood, is of high value in mill work; and the iron wood, the Barbadoes cedar, and a ſpecies of cordia, known in the Engliſh iſlands by the name of Spaniſh elm, are in great requeſt for durable ſubſtantial timber.

The fruits of the Weſt Indies are deſervedly celebrated for their variety and flavour; the plantations in the mountainous diſtricts yield the apple, the peach, the fig, the grape, the pomegranate, the orange, and all the other European fruits, while the more ſultry parts abound in native products that may well vie with, if they do not ſurpaſs, theſe adopted ſtrangers: the pine-apple, the ſapota or ſapadilla, the avocato pear, the caſhew nut, the cocoa nut, the piſidium or guava, the cuſtard apple, the papaw, the ſhaddock, and the granadilla, form the principal.

The commercial products of theſe iſlands are for the moſt part procured from cultivated and naturalized vegetables, which therefore can ſcarcely be admitted in an account of their indigenous plants. The vanilla however is found truly wild in the woods of Jamaica and St. Domingo; the aloe, though cultivated only at Barbadoes, grows ſpontaneouſly on the dry rocky ſoils of Cuba, the Bahamas, and many other of the iſlands: the bixa orellana, from which is procured the annotta, is common to the Weſt Indies, and all the hot parts of America; and the fragrant pimento or all-ſpice is not only a genuine native, but even

refuſes to be propagated by human care. Of all the beautiful ſpecies of myrtle, the myrtus pimenta is perhaps the moſt beautiful, and from the eloquent pen of Bryan Edwards it has received its merited praiſe; it riſes in natural groves on the ſide of the mountains that look toward the ſea, to the height of twenty or thirty feet, and as no other ſhrub will grow beneath its ſhade, it always affords a cool open walk, perfumed with the exquiſite fragrance of its ſnowy bloſſoms, floating in looſe cluſters on its deep green foliage. Botany.

But few of the other indigenous vegetables of the Weſt Indies are likely to intereſt the general reader; of theſe the arboreſcent ferns are perhaps the moſt ſtriking: while the Britiſh ferns never exceed the height of three or four feet, and die to the ground at the approach of winter; thoſe ſpecies that enjoy the perpetual ſummer of theſe iſlands are perennial plants, and the polypodium arboreum in particular throws up a trunk above twenty feet high, terminated by broad pinnated leaves, which gives it exactly the habit and general appearance of a palm tree.

Three plants remain to be mentioned, namely, the guiacum or lignum vitæ, of which both the reſin and the wood are uſeful, the former in medicine, the latter as a material for pullies and turnery ware; winterana canella, whoſe bark is introduced into the pharmacopæa; and cinchona Caribbæa, a congenerous ſpecies of the Peruvian bark.

SOUTH AMERICA

Extent.—Original Inhabitants.—Climate and Seaſons.—Lakes.—Rivers.—Mountains.

Extent.

THIS diviſion of the new continent extends, as already explained, from the mountainous boundary between the provinces of Veragua and Panama, the latter province belonging to South America. But the land afterwards aſcending conſiderably further to the north, the length muſt be computed from about 12° of N. lat. to 54° S. lat. and yet further, if the Terra del Fuego be compriſed. The length is at leaſt ſixty-ſix degrees, or 3960 g. miles; while the breadth, as already mentioned, is about 2880 g. miles.

Original Poplation.

The original population of this large portion of the earth remains obſcure, but may moſt probably have been from Africa, where copper coloured nations with long hair have been recently diſcloſed. The diſcovery of Brazil, by a Portugueſe fleet deſtined to paſs the Cape of Good Hope, ſhews that America might have been diſcloſed by mere accident, and that the winds might waft veſſels acroſs the Atlantic. The conſtant trade winds, blowing from eaſt to weſt, could ſcarcely fail to impel ſome raſh African mariners to the American ſhores. This conjecture may perhaps admit more probability, when further diſcoveries and inveſtigations ſhall have been made in the African dialects*.

* The Natchez of Florida ſeem to ſtrengthen this theory, by their tradition that they came from the riſing ſun, or the eaſt, that the voyage was long, and their anceſtors on the point of periſhing when they diſcovered America. Du Pratz, ii. 113. The natives of the Canaries are ſaid to have been extremely tall, and may perhaps have been the anceſtors of the Tehuels, called by Europeans Patagonians, who always bury their dead on the caſtern ſhores, as looking towards the country of their anceſtors. See the French Aſtronomical voyage, 1778, 4to. tome i. and Falkner's Patagonia.

NORTH ATLANTIC
OCEAN
SOUTH AMERICA
Equinoctial line
Longitude West 30 from Greenwich
From Olmadilla corrected by the astron. obs of Malespina
Arrowsmith Lambert
Published March 1st 1802, by Cadell and Davies, Strand and Longman and Rees Paternoster Row

The progreſſive geography is here ſynonymous with the various diſcoveries which have been indicated in the general view of America. Many parts of the interior are ſtill obſcure; wide regions on the great river of Amazons being covered with impenetrable foreſts, and others flooded by the inundations, ſo that much preciſion can rarely be attained. In the ſouth there are vaſt ſaline plains, and ſmall ſandy deſerts, equally adverſe to geographical certainty. The Spaniſh maps are likewiſe of noted inaccuracy. But great light has been diffuſed over South America by the recent large map of Don Juan de la Cruz, Cano, y Olmedilla, geographer to the king 1775, republiſhed by Mr. Faden 1799. So recent is any exact delineation of this grand diviſion of the new world! * Progreſſive Geography.

The religion of South America is in general the Roman Catholic, with the exception of the ſmall Dutch territory, and a few ſavage tribes.

The ſouthern extremity, extending far beyond that of Africa, is expoſed to all the horrors of the antarctic froſts; and Terra del Fuego in the S. lat. of 55° ſeems expoſed to the almoſt perpetual winter of Greenland in N. lat. 70°. Tehuelia, or Patagonia, conſiſting moſtly of open deſerts and ſavannas, with a few willow trees on the rivers, ſeems to enjoy a temperate but rather cool climate. On proceeding towards the north the great chain of the Andes conſtitutes real zones and climates, which ſtrangely contradict the theories of ancient geographers; the chief inconveniences of the torrid zone being extreme cold on the mountains, and extreme moiſture in the plains †. Near Callao the months of October and November form the Spring. In Peru what is called ſummer is the dry ſeaſon, often extremely cold; and the rainy ſeaſon is called winter. The former begins in May, which is nearly the beginning of winter in the lower parts, and continues till November, when the ſlight fogs, called winter in the vales, begin to diſperſe. On Climate and Seaſons.

* Even the large map by Kitchen, 1774, of the ſouthern half, inſerted in Falkner's Patagonia, though pretended to be built upon authentic materials, will be found to be almoſt wholly imaginary, when compared with that of La Cruz.

† Ulloa Memoires Philoſophiques, Paris, 1787, two vol. 8vo. i. 89.

Climate and Seasons.

the mountains winter begins in December, which in the plains is the firſt month of Summer; and a journey of four hours conducts the traveller from one ſeaſon to another. At Quito, ſituated between two chains of the Andes, on a plain of remarkable elevation, the months from September to May or June conſtitute the winter; and the other months the ſummer; the former being expoſed to almoſt conſtant rains, which are alſo frequent, but at longer intervals, during the ſummer ſeaſon [2]. At Carthagena the winter, or rainy ſeaſon, extends, on the contrary, from May to November; and the ſummer, or dry ſeaſon, from December to April. At Panama the ſummer begins rather later, and ends ſooner; at Lima, in a ſouthern latitude nearly correſponding with the northern of Carthagena, the heat is far more moderate; and ſpring begins with December, winter with July: the ſummer is in February, the autumn in May.

In general the confined regions on the weſt of the Andes are dry, the clouds being arreſted by their ſummits; while the wide countries on the eaſt of that chain are expoſed to torrents of rain, from the eaſtern or trade winds blowing over the Atlantic. In Brazil the rainy ſeaſon begins in March or April, and ends in Auguſt, when the ſpring begins, or rather the ſummer; the diſtinction being only between wet and dry ſeaſons [3].

Lakes.

South America can ſcarcely boaſt of any inland ſea; but the great river of Amazons, and that of La Plata, may be ſaid to ſupply this deficiency; and if numerouſly peopled by induſtrious inhabitants, there would be no room to complain of the want of inland navigation throughout the greater part of this ample portion of the earth. The gulfs on the S. W. extremity containing the iſles of Chiloe, St. Martin, &c. are of ſmall conſequence, and in a remote and diſadvantageous poſition. No part of the globe diſplays ſo great a number of lakes as

[2] Ulloa's Voyage, i. 278, but ſee the obſervations at the end of vol. ii. of the French tranſlation, two vol. 4to. which is far ſuperior. At Riobamba the winter laſts from December to June, being far colder than at Quito; and further to the ſouth *Chili* (Tchili) receives its name from *ſnow*. From the gulf of Guayquil to the deſerts of Atacama, a ſpace of 400 leagues in length by 20 or 30 in breadth, it never rains; and thunder and ſtorms are unknown. Bouguer, xxiii.

[3] Piſo, lib. i.

North

North America; and the ſouthern part of the new continent is perhaps equally remarkable by their rarity. Many ſuppoſed lakes, as that of Zarayos or Sharayos, in the courſe of the river Paraguay, only exiſt during the annual inundations, which are on a far grander ſcale than thoſe of the Ganges, and may be ſaid to deluge whole provinces. In the moſt northern part the Lagoon of Maracaybo is remarkable, being a circular baſon about 100 B. miles in diameter, receiving numerous rivers and rivulets, and communicating with the ſea by a conſiderable creek. The celebrated lake Parima, called alſo Paranapitinca or the White Sea, is repreſented by La Cruz as more than 100 B. miles in length by 50 in breadth. This ſize, and even its exiſtence, have been doubted, as it was the noted ſeat of the city El Dorado, the ſtreets of which were paved with gold; a fable which ſeems to have ariſen from a rock of talc reflecting, like a mirror, the golden rays of the ſun. According to La Cruz this lake receives the Orinoco on the N. W. which afterwards emerges, and purſues a weſterly courſe, till it finally bend north and eaſt. The Parima alſo gives ſource to the great river of the ſame name, likewiſe called the Rio Blanco, which joins the river Negro, and great river of Amazons. In this part of South America there is, as it were, a conteſt betwixt land and water; and ſo level and mutable is the ſoil, that the rivers ſeem dubious what courſe to purſue, as they flow in every direction, and branches of the Orinoco communicate with the tributary rivers of the immenſe Maranon. The natural hiſtory of the celebrated lake of Parima would be not a little intereſting, but a deep obſcurity pervades thoſe regions. Lakes.

In Amazonia and Brazil there do not appear to be any lakes of conſequence; but the Portugueſe are inferior even to the Spaniards in geography and natural hiſtory, and many diſcoveries remain to be made in their ample poſſeſſions. The lake of Zarayos or Xarayes is a mere inundation of the river Paraguay, and is juſtly exploded.* But that of Titicaca, nearly in the ſame parallel, and in the kingdom of Peru, is regarded as the moſt important in South America. Ulloa ſays that it is of an oval figure, the circumference about 240 miles; and the depth Titicaca.

* Dobrizhoffer, i 205.

Titicaca. 70 or 80 fathoms. It receives ten or twelve rivers and ſeveral rivulets; but the water, though not ſaline, is nauſeous, being probably tainted with ſulphur or bitumen. It contains two kinds of fiſh, and is frequented by geeſe and wild fowl. In an iſle of this lake Mango Capac, the founder of the Peruvian monarchy, reported that the ſun, his father, had placed him, with his ſiſter, and conſort, Oello; and here a temple was dedicated to the ſun, the moſt ſplendid in the kingdom, and profuſely decorated with plates of gold and ſilver. On the Spaniſh invaſion theſe treaſures are ſaid to have been thrown into the lake.[5]

A few ſmall lakes are found near the courſe of the river Parana; and there are two large lagoons on the eaſtern coaſt, lat. 31° 33°. Towards the S. of Chili there are ſome lakes of conſiderable ſize, communicating with the river of Sauzes, or Willows, one of them being called the lake of the Tehuels: and a few ſmall lakes further to the S. are ſaline, a wide extent of territory being impregnated with nitre.

Rivers. The river of Amazons, ſo called from a female tribe inured to arms, diſcovered on its banks by the firſt navigators, but more properly

1. Maranon. by a native term the Maranon, is celebrated as the moſt diſtinguiſhed river, not only in South America, but in the whole world: and this reputation is no doubt juſt when its magnitude is conſidered, as well as its length. For in the latter attribute it ſeems to be rivalled by the Kian Ku of China, and perhaps by the Ob of Siberia, as already explained in diſcuſſing the courſe of the Miſſouri; when it was obſerved that, on the comparative ſcale of merely tracing the courſe by an accurate map, and allowing for the great changes of direction, the length might be eſtimated at about 2300 miles; and that of the Rio de la Plata about 1900: but the eſtuary of the Ob is frozen, and that of the Kian Ku cannot exceed a mile or two in breadth, while the two grand American rivers are of ſurpriſing magnitude. The Chineſe annals ſay that their great rivers have been confined by art, while in ancient times they inundated whole provinces, like the Maranon.

The voyage of Condamine contains the moſt accurate deſcription which has yet appeared of this grand river.[6] The ſource is not

5 Ulloa, ii. 163, or Tome i. 534, of the French tranſlation.

6 Relation abrégée d'un Voyage fait dans l'interieur de l'Amerique Meridionale, Paris, 1745, 8vo.

yet

yet abſolutely aſcertained. The celebrated mathematician juſt quoted, ſays, that the Ucaial is the chief ſtream, as its ſources are more remote than thoſe of the ſuppoſed Maranon; and it is a conſiderable river in the ſame parallel, when the other is only a torrent.[7] On the other hand the Maranon makes a greater circuit, and is of extraordinary depth. According to Ulloa the Maranon iſſues from the lake of Lauricocha, near the city of Guanuco, S. lat. 11 °, whence it directs its courſe ſouth for about ſixty miles, then bends eaſt through the country of Juaxa, where, after falling from the eaſt ſide of the Andes, it paſſes N. to the city of Jaen.[8] Thence it proceeds in its long progreſs towards the eaſt; and joins the Atlantic after a courſe, including all the windings, of 1100 leagues, or 3300 miles. Ulloa alſo doubts, whether the Ucaial muſt not be regarded as the principal ſtream. In the valuable map of La Cruz, what he calls the *ancient* Maranon, or Pari, correſponds with the deſcription of Ulloa; but receives the Apurimac, a river of far longer courſe, riſing near the town of Arequipa, on the weſt of the great lake of Titicaca, S. lat. 16° 30′. If this repreſentation be juſt, there is no doubt that the Apurimac is the original and proper river of Amazons; and both of theſe ſources belong to the UCAIAL. The *new* Maranon, according to La Cruz, riſes indeed from the lake of Lauricocha, near the ſource of the Pari; but runs N. W. inſtead of paſſing ſouth, as Ulloa ſuppoſes, by confounding the *old* and *new* Maranon, and the lake of *Lauricocha* with that of *Chinchay*, a few miles to the ſouth, which laſt gives ſource to the Pari. Theſe improvements in the geography ſeem to eſtabliſh beyond all doubt, that the Ucaial, from its remoteſt branch the Apurimac, muſt be regarded as the genuine Maranon; while the river called the New Maranon (for the name towards its ſource is omitted), is of far ſhorter courſe, and was only ſtyled the Maranon from a miſtake in its fountain. In the map of La Cruz, though the courſe of the Ucaial be more direct, it amounts to about ſeventeen degrees at its junction with the ſuppoſed Maranon, which may be called the river of Lauricocha*; while the latter does not exceed fourteen degrees and a half. RIVERS.

[7] P. 69. [8] Ulloa, i. 365. or i. 307, French tranſlation.

* Ulloa expreſsly uſes this name, i. 366, in contradiſtinction to the Ucaial.

Rivers. Ucaial.

The Ucaial, thus conſiſting of two main ſources, the old Maranon or Pari, and the Apurimac, after paſſing the great chain of the Andes, bends ſometimes N. W. ſometimes N. E. till it receive the new Maranon. But the courſe of the Ucaial being through a more remote country, and more unexplored foreſts than that of the Lauricocha, its chief features, and natural hiſtory, are leſs known; and the ſavages on its banks unfortunately maſſacred their miſſionary in 1695, ſo that Condamine and Ulloa are alike ignorant concerning this noble river, which probably preſents objects more grand and intereſting than thoſe on the Lauricocha. The Apurimac, ſtruggling through the Andes, muſt alſo afford many ſtriking ſcenes, ſtill loſt to ſcientific obſervation.

Lauricocha.

On the contrary, the Lauricocha or new Maranon has been repeatedly deſcribed, and was navigated by Condamine from near the town of Jaen, where it begins to be navigable; thence paſſing N. E. it arrives at the exterior ridge of the Andes, which it cleaves at a paſs called the Pongo, a word in the Peruvian language implying a gate. This ſublime ſcene diſplays the Lauricocha confined between two parallel walls of almoſt perpendicular rock. From a breadth of 250 fathoms the river is here contracted to 25; but the rapidity is not extreme, and a raft paſſes the two leagues in about an hour.

After the junction of theſe two great rivers, the Maranon, beſides ſmaller ſtreams, receives from the north the Napo, the Parana, Yupuro, the Great Negro which has received the Parima; and from the ſouth the Cuchivara or Araza, and the prodigious ſtream called Madera, conſiſting of the Bene, the Mamore, and the Ytenas, the chief ſources of which are from the eaſtern ſide of the Andes, watering a vaſt extent of this wide continent. The Madera may indeed be regarded as another grand ſource of the river of Amazons; which is alſo joined from the ſouth by the Topaiſa and Shingu, while its eſtuary is connected with the great Brazilian river called Tocantinas. Like the Miſſouri and St. Lawrence the Maranon is diſcoloured with mud. The breadth at the Portugueſe boundary is ſaid to be a league, but it is generally about two miles; and no bottom is found at 103 fathoms. The effect of the tides is perceivable to the diſtance of 600 miles, but Condamine thinks that the ſwell is occaſioned by the progreſs of the tide of the preceding day.

The

The banks are generally crowned with vaſt foreſts of lofty trees, among which are many of a rare and medicinal nature. Serpents of prodigious ſize are found in the marſhes, and alligators are alſo common. It ſeems certain, from the diſquiſition of Condamine, that ſome female warriors ſtill exiſt towards the north of this great river. After it has received the Shingu, the breadth from ſhore to ſhore cannot be diſcovered by the eye. Near its mouth the Bore riſes from twelve to fifteen feet in height; and the noiſe of this irruption is heard at the diſtance of two leagues.* RIVERS.

The Rio de la Plata, or river of Silver, is the conjunct flood of the Paraguay, the Pilcomayo, the Parana, and the Urucuay. The main ſtreams are the Paraguay and the Parana; and it would ſeem that the latter is the longeſt and moſt conſiderable, riſing in the great mine mountains of Brazil, lat. 19°, and bending S. then W. till it receive the Iba Parana, after which it bends S. W. till it is joined by the Paraguay, while the conjunct rivers are ſtill called the Parana by the natives, and the Rio de la Plata by the Spaniards. Yet the length of the Paraguay, according to the map of La Cruz, does not yield above half a degree to that of the Parana; and the ſtraitneſs of its courſe gives it the appearance of the principal river. The grand cataract of the Parana is in lat. 24°, not far from the city of Cuayra; but is rather a ſeries of rapids, for a ſpace of twelve leagues, amidſt rocks of tremendous and ſingular forms.[9] This noble river is alſo ſtudded with numerous iſlands; and Spaniſh veſſels navigate to the town of Aſſumption, about 400 leagues from the ſea. On the ſhores are often found geods incloſing cryſtals; but the natural hiſtory of the Parana is nearly as obſcure as that of the Ucaial. The breadth of the eſtuary is ſuch, that the land cannot be diſcovered from a ſhip in the middle of the ſtream. 2. La Plata or Parana.

* This effect called *pororoca* is chiefly obſervable towards the cape del Norte on the mouth of the Arowary. Condamine, p. 193. The letter of M. Godin to this author contains an intereſting narrative of Madame Godin's navigation down the Maranon in 1769. She was perhaps as bold an Amazon as ever appeared on its banks.

[9] Dobrizhoffer, i. 206. This author, p. 188, ſeems rightly to aſſert that the Parana is the chief ſtream, which receives the Paraguay and Urucuay. The inundations are chiefly in December and January, riſing about five or ſix yards above the iſlets. Falkner, p. 56.

Rivers. 3. Orinoco.

The third great river in South America is the Orinoco, of a moſt ſingular and perplexed courſe. According to La Cruz it riſes in the ſmall lake of Ipava, N. lat. $5^{\circ}\ 5'$; and thence winds almoſt in a ſpiral form; firſt paſſing to the S. E. it enters the lake of Parima, and iſſues by two outlets on the N. and S. of that lake towards the W. but after receiving the Guaviari, it bends N. then N. E. till it enter the Atlantic Ocean by an extended delta oppoſite to the iſle of Trinidad; but the chief eſtuary is conſiderably to the S. E. of that iſland. Many rivers of great ſize flow into the Orinoco; and in addition to its ſingular form there are other remarkable peculiarities. From the S. E. of the lake of Parima, which ſeems to be a kind of inundation formed by the Orinoco, the White River, called alſo that of Parima, joins the Black River, and thence, the great flood of the Maranon. Another ſtream, the Siaba, flows from the S. W. of the lake into the Black River and joins another ſtream, which directly connects the Maranon with the Orinoco. There is alſo a communication between the Black River and the Maranon, by the Joa Parana. Hence there are three communications between theſe great rivers; a circumſtance ſo uncommon, that when one only had been aſſerted by Spaniſh authors, it was rejected by geographical theoriſts as contrary to the uſual courſe of nature, and Condamine was obliged to enter into a formal diſquiſition in order to re-eſtabliſh it. A route laid down by La Cruz, that of Solano Governor of Caracas, ſeems to confirm the authenticity of his intelligence concerning the environs of the lake of Parima; and little doubt can remain concerning theſe wonderful inland navigations, thus prepared by the hand of nature, and which in the poſſeſſion of an induſtrious people would render Guiana, or New Andaluſia, one of the moſt flouriſhing countries in the world.

The other rivers of South America are comparatively of ſmall account, the chief being the Magdalena, running N. to the Caribbean ſea; and that of St. Francis which waters a great part of Brazil. To the S. of the great Parana there is the river Mendoza, and the Rio de los Sauzes or river of Willows; followed in the furtheſt ſouth by the Chulclau and the Gallegos, the laſt entering the Pacific oppoſite to the Malouin or Falkland iſlands.

The

The mountains of South America conſtitute ſome of the grandeſt objects in natural geography, being not only the moſt lofty on the face of the globe, but intermixed with volcanoes of the moſt ſublime and terrific deſcription. The extent is alſo prodigious, the Andes ſtretching in one line from the capes of Iſidro and Pilares, in the ſouthern extremity of the continent, to the weſt ſide of the gulf of Darien, a ſpace of not leſs than 4600 miles, as they generally follow the windings of the coaſt, at the medial diſtance of about one hundred miles. The chief ſummits are near the equator, not far from the city of Quito. The beſt account of theſe celebrated mountains ſeems to be that given by Bouguer, one of the French mathematicians, who, 1735—1743, meaſured a degree near the equator, and who has publiſhed two views of their appearance near Quito.[10] Chimborazo, the higheſt of theſe mountains, about 100 B. miles to the S. of Quito, and about ten miles to the N. of Riobamba, was computed by theſe mathematicians to be 3217 French toiſes above the level of the ſea, or 20,280 feet: about 5000 feet, or one quarter, higher than Mont Blanc. That part of Chimborazo which is covered with perpetual ſnow is about 2400 feet from the ſummit. But theſe mountains are elevated on the high plain of Quito, which conſtitutes more than one third of the computed height; ſo that conſidered as mere excreſcences from the land they ſtill yield to Mont Blanc. Mountains. Chimborazo.

The next in height is ſuppoſed to be the volcano called Cotopaſhi, eſtimated at about 18,600 feet, and ſituated about twenty-five miles to the S. E. of Quito. Other grand ſummits are Pachincha, a few miles to the N. E. of Quito; the Altar, and Sanga to the S. E. of Chimborazo. In general the Andes here proceed in a double chain, the interval being the plain of Quito: to the weſtern ridge belong Pichincha, Iliniſſa, Chimborazo, &c. while the eaſtern is crowned by Cotopaſhi, the Altar, Sanga, &c. and this form continues at leaſt for about 500 miles from the ſouth of Cuenza to the north of Popayan.[11] Mineralogy was at that time an unknown ſcience; and Bouguer only informs us that the bottom is clay, and the ſummit a maſs of ſtones! The American Alps clothed with perpetual ſnow extend a great diſtance further to the north, towards the junction of the rivers Cauca and Magdalena:

[10] Figure de la Terre, Paris 1749, 4to.

[11] Bouguer, xxxii.

Mountains. but about two degrees to the N. of the equator they are not above one quarter the height. Further to the ſouth they alſo greatly decreaſe in elevation.*

According to the account of Humboldt, a French naturaliſt, who has lately viſited a conſiderable part of South America,[12] there are three other remarkable chains of mountains which proceed from weſt to eaſt parallel to the equator; and which by their height deſerve the attention of naturaliſts, as much as the Carpathian mountains, or the Pyrenees, though it have been ſuppoſed that, on the eaſt of the Andes, immenſe plains extend to the ſhores of Guiana and Brazil, and even to Buenos Ayres and Patagonia.

1. That of the Northern Coaſt, between nine and ten degrees of north latitude.

2. That of Parima, or the chain of the cataracts of Orinoco, from three to ſeven degrees N. lat.†

3. The chain of Chiquitos, between 15° and 20° of S. latitude.

Northern. The moſt northern, or that of the coaſt of Venezuela, is the moſt lofty, but the narroweſt. From the high plain of Quito the great chain of the Andes extends, by Popayan and Choco, on the weſt of the river

* See Ulloa, i. 206. for an account of the deſert of Chimborazo. It is ſurpriſing that in his *Noticias Americanas*, Madrid 1772, 4to, he gives no account of theſe grand features of nature. In Lentin's ſcale of the heights of mountains the Chimborazo is almoſt rivalled by the Deſcabeſado, which ſeems unknown to Bouguer: the Antiſana, a moſt lofty volcano, is delineated by that mathematician; but the Cayambe is alſo not mentioned by him, though all ſtated by Lentin as ſuperior in height to Cotopaſhi. The mountain of Sanguay is a paramo or vaſt deſert mountain, the ſummit always covered with ſnow: it is a conſtant volcano, and the exploſions are heard at the diſtance of forty leagues. Ulloa, liv. vi. c. vii. According to Bouguer, p. l. the height of the freezing point is here 2440 toiſes above the level of the ſea; and it would end at the height of 4300 toiſes, not from the ceſſation of cold, which on the contrary increaſes with the diſtance from the earth, but becauſe no clouds nor vapours can aſcend to a greater height. He conſiders, p. lv. the main chain of the Andes as terminating near the junction of the rivers Cauca and Magdalena, between which it proceeds from Popayan. The ſame author, p. lxvi. obſerved ſtones of eight or nine feet diameter ejected from Cotopaſhi to the diſtance of more than nine miles. On the N. E. of the Andes the rocks are perfectly horizontal, and often in groteſque forms reſembling churches or caſtles. Similar appearances are remarked in Abyſſinia. The deſert ſummits called *paramos* in Quito are in Peru ſtyled *punas*. Ulloa Memoires i. 121. In Chili the Andes are not above a ſeventh part the height of thoſe of Peru. Ib. 363. Doubtful. See Molina.

[12] Journal de Phyſique, Meſſidor an ix. July 1801.

† Theſe cataracts are at Maypura and Atures, N. lat. 6° in the map of La Cruz; the Spaniſh term for a cataract being *raudal*, which rather implies a *rapide*.

Atrato, towards the Iſthmus, where on the banks of the Chagré, it only forms mountainous land about 1200 feet high. From the ſame Andes proceed ſeveral branches, one called the Sierra de Abibe towards the province of St. Marta.* This chain of the coaſt is reſtricted, as it approaches the gulf of Mexico, and cape of Vela, and afterwards runs due eaſt towards the mountain of Paria, or even to the iſle of Trinidad. The greateſt height is in the two Sierras Nevadas of St. Marta, and of Merida.† The firſt being near 5000 varas or Spaniſh yards, and the ſecond 5400 varas, about 2350 toiſes, or 14,000 feet Engliſh, above the ſea. Several mountains of this chain are perhaps equal in height to Mont Blanc; perpetually covered with ſnow, and often pouring from their ſides ſtreams of boiling ſulphureous water: and the higheſt peaks are ſolitary amidſt mountains of little height, that of Merida is near the plain of Caracas, which is only 260 feet above the ſea. The vallies in the branch on the weſt of the Lagoon of Maracaybo are narrow, and run from north to ſouth. That part which extends from Merida to the eaſt has vales running eaſt and weſt, formed by parallel ridges, one of which paſſes to cape Codera, while the ſecond is three or four leagues further to the ſouth. Our author ſuppoſes that the wide plains were formerly lakes; but is too fond of bending nature to his theories, while he ought to have been content with the obſervation of facts. Mountains.

The general height of the chain of the coaſt is from 6 to 800 toiſes, the Nevada of Merida, as already mentioned, 2350, and the Silla de Caracas 1316: lowering towards the eaſt, cape Codera is only 176 toiſes. But this depreſſion is only of the primitive rock, for there are ſecondary calcareous mountains from cape Unara, which are higher than the gneiſs, or foliated granite, and the micaceous ſchiſtus. Theſe calcareous

* The mountains of St. Marta are covered with ſnow and viſible from the ſea. Ulloa lib. i. c. 1.

† Our author's latitudes do not correſpond with the map of La Cruz, who gives the Nevada of Merida between lat. 8° and 9°. Humboldt is an advocate for perpetual ranges. He ſhould have ſaid that a branch, the Sierra de Piriho, ſtretches towards Vela; while another chain extends N. E. giving ſource to many rivers, which flow into the Orinoco from the north; and perhaps winds along to Paria.

Condamine, in ſailing down the Maranon, did not obſerve one hill for the ſpace of two months after leaving the Pongo, till he ſaw the mountains of Guiana giving ſource to rivers that run N. and S.

Mountains. mountains, covered with calcareous freeſtone, follow this chain on its ſouthern ſide, and increaſe in height towards the eaſtern point of the continent. The chain of the coaſt is more ſteep towards the north than the ſouth; and there is a dreadful perpendicular precipice of 1300 toiſes in the Silla de Caracas, above Caravelledo, the northern part of this chain being perhaps broken by the gulf of Mexico.

Of Parima. The Second Chain, that of Parima, or of the cataracts of Orinoco, is little known, and was ſcarcely eſteemed paſſable till within theſe thirty years, ſince the expedition of Ituriaga and Solano. The volcano of Duida is in lat. 3° 13′. This chain leaves the Andes near Popayan, and ſtretching weſt to eaſt, from the ſources of the Guaviari, appears to extend to the N. E. of that river, forming the cataracts of Maypura and Atures in the Orinoco, lat. 5°, which are truly dreadful, but preſent the only paſſage yet opened towards the vale of Amazons. Thence, ſo far as can be judged from our author's confuſed deſcription, this chain continues its courſe N. E. to the river Caronis, the breadth being ſometimes not leſs than 120 leagues: Humboldt muſt mean that branches occur of that length. Further to the eaſt* the continuation is little known. The ferocity of the Guaicas and Guajaribos forbade any approach beyond the little cataract on the eaſt of Chiguera, but Don Antonio Santos, diſguiſed as an Indian, paſſed from the mouth of the river Caronis to the little lake of Parima, and diſcloſed the continuation of this range between 4° and 5° N. lat. where it is about 60 leagues in breadth, dividing the waters which fall into the Orinoco and Eſquibo from thoſe that fall into the river of Amazons. Further to the eaſt this range becomes ſtill wider, deſcending ſouth along the Mao, where the Dutch ſtyle a part of it Dorado, or the mountain of gold; being compoſed of bright micaceous ſchiſtus, which has given a like reputation to a ſmall iſle in the lake of Parima. To the eaſt of the Eſquibo this range takes a S. E. direction, and joins the granitic mountains of Guiana, which give ſource to the river of Surinam, and others. This laſt group of mountains is of great extent, the ſame gneiſs being found at 8° 20′ and 2° 14′. This wide range is inhabited by a number of ſavage tribes, little or not

* He ſays betwen 68. and 60. W. long. from Paris.

at all known in Europe.* No where does it ſeem to riſe to an equal height with the northern range of the coaſt, the mountain of Duida, not far from Eſmeralda, being reputed the higheſt, and, meaſured by Humboldt, was found 1323 toiſes above the ſea; but it is a pictureſque and majeſtic mountain, ejecting flames towards the end of the rainy ſeaſon, and ſituated near a beautiful plain, covered with palm trees and ananas. Towards the eaſt it ſeems to expire in broken rocks; but there is no appearance throughout of any ſecondary ſtrata, the rocks being granite, gneiſs, micaceous ſchiſtus, and hornblende ſlate. MOUNTAINS.

The Third Chain of primitive mountains, or that of Chiquitos, is only known to our author by the accounts of thoſe who have paſſed the Pampas. It unites the Andes of Peru and Chili with the mountains of Brazil and Paraguay, ſtretching from La Paz and Potoſi and Tucuman through the provinces of Moxos, Chiquitos, and Chaco, towards the government of the mines, and of St. Paul in Brazil. The higheſt ſummits appear to be between 15° and 20°; the rivers there paſſing to that of Amazons, or that of La Plata. Of Chiquitos.

Between theſe three great ridges are, according to our author, three immenſe vallies, that of Orinoco, that of the river of Amazons, and that of the Pampas of Buenos Ayres, from 19° to 52° S. lat. all opening to the eaſt, but ſhut on the weſt by the Andes. The middle valley, or that of the Amazons, is covered with foreſts ſo thick, that the rivers alone form roads; while thoſe of Orinoco and Pampas are ſavannas, or graſſy plains, with a few ſcattered palms; and ſo level, that ſometimes for 800 ſquare leagues there is no inequality above eight or ten inches in height. In the northern plain the primitive rock is covered with limeſtone, gypſum, and freeſtone; while in that of Amazons the granite every where riſes to day. The general inclination is to the N. W. which, according to our author, is the uſual arrangement of primitive rocks. Petrifactions are uncommon even in the Andes, where there are ſometimes patches of gypſum, and ſecondary limeſtone; while the range of Parima conſiſts entirely of granite and other primitive rocks.

* Our author's ſubſequent remarks ſhew that he is a ſtranger to the great map of La Cruz; and nothing can be more confuſed than his whole account, in which branches of mountains are confounded with the main chain.

But

Mountains. But in a calcareous freeſtone of the northern ridges of the coaſt, Humboldt found vaſt numbers of ſhells, ſeemingly of recent petrifaction, as they are thoſe of the ſea, now nine leagues diſtant. The belemnite and ammonite ſeem unknown, though ſo common in Europe. In the plain of Orinoco petrified trees are found, in a coarſe breccia.

Conſtruction. Among the primitive rocks Humboldt mentions granite, which forms the chain of Parima; while in that of the coaſt it is covered, or mingled with gneiſs and micaceous ſchiſtus. It is ſometimes ſtratified in beds, from two to three feet thick; and ſometimes contains large cryſtals of felſpar. The micaceous ſchiſtus ſometimes preſents red garnets, and ſappare; and in the gneiſs of the mountain of Avila green garnets appear. Sometimes nodules of granite are found in the ſame ſubſtance, or in gneiſs, conſiſting of finer grains gathered by ſome local attraction. In the range of Parima there occur large maſſes of moſt brilliant talc, formerly imparting ſuch reputation to the Dorado, ſituated between the rivers Eſquibo and Mao, and other mountains, which, like burniſhed gold, reflect the light of the ſun. If Sir Walter Ralegh had reflected that all that glitters is not gold, he might have ſaved his fatal voyage to El Dorado. Smectite or ſoft jad is formed into idols; and Condamine diſcovered that variety of hard jad called Amazon ſtone, a name idly applied to the blue felſpar of Siberia. Schiſtoſe chlorite alſo occurs; and beautiful hornblende ſlate riſes through the ſtreets of Guaiana, or S. Thome. Other ſubſtances are, decompoſed felſpar or kaolin, primitive limeſtone, plumbago; and there are veins of quartz which contain auriferous pyrites, and antimony, native gold, grey copper, and malachite. The copper mines of Aroa are alone worked, producing about 1500 quintals yearly. Slate is rare, but ſometimes covers the micaceous ſchiſtus; and in the northern chain there are rocks of ſerpentine, veined with bluiſh ſteatite. The grunſtein of Werner ſometimes occurs in that ridge.

Among the rocks called tranſitive by Werner, as connecting the primitive with the ſecondary, are trap, green ſlate, amygdaloid, and the ſchiſtoſe porphyry of that author, green with cryſtals of felſpar. The ſecondary

dary rocks are limeſtone, gypſum, argillaceous ſchiſtus, and freeſtone or calcareous ſandſtone, with coarſe breccia.* Mountains.

A practical German mineralogiſt, employed for ſome years in the mines of Peru,† informs us that the eaſtern ſpurs of the Andes ſometimes preſent red and green granite, and gneiſs, as towards Cordova and Tucuman; but the Grand Chain chiefly conſiſts of argillaceous ſchiſtus, or various kinds of thick ſlate, bluiſh, dark red, fleſh colour, grey, and yellow; on which, in many places, are incumbent ſtrata of limeſtone, and large maſſes of ferruginous ſand-ſtone. Neither in Hungary, Saxony nor the Pyrenees, had our author beheld mountains ſo irregular as the Andes, or broken into ſuch alternate ſubſtances, revealing ſome prodigious revolution of nature. Amid the argillaceous ſchiſtus the metals ſometimes occur in veins of quartz, ſometimes in alluvial layers of ſand-ſtone and iron ſand. Near Potoſi are irregular beds of large bullets of granite; and the celebrated mountain, ſo rich in ſilver ore, is chiefly compoſed of a firm yellow argillaceous ſlate, full of veins of ferruginous quartz, in which ſome of the beſt ores are found. In paſſing the higheſt ridge of the Andes, between Potoſi and Lima, Helms ſtill found argillaceous ſchiſtus the predominant ſubſtance; ſometimes with ſtrata of ſand-ſtone, ſometimes with long extents of granite. Near the lake of Titicaca the Andes are of prodigious height, (this being the centre of the chain, and perhaps equalling the ſummits near Quito); and Helms obſerved in ſome places the baſis of argillaceous ſchiſtus covered with alluvial layers of marl, gypſum, limeſtone, ſand, fragments of porphyry, and even rock ſalt; yet rich ſilver occurs in abundance. Conſtruction of the Andes.

* At the end of Humboldt's paper is a ſketch of a primitive and ſecondary rock, of the chain of the coaſt, and that of Parima. Both reſt on maſſive granite often mingled with jad and plumbago. This is followed, in the Primary, by foliated granite, micaceous ſchiſtus with garnets, primitive ſlate with beds of native alum, ſlate mixed with hornblende, grunſtein (which he calls primitive trap), amygdaloid, while the ſummit is ſchiſtoſe porphyry. In the Secondary, the maſs of granite is ſurmounted by gneiſs, with beds of primitive limeſtone; the micaceous ſchiſtus with ſchiſtoſe plumbago, and limeſtone; the ſame with beds of Lydian ſtone and petroſilex, gypſum, calcareous freeſtone. His plumbago ſeems to be hornblende.

† Tagebuch einer Reiſe, &c. A Journal of a Journey through Peru, from Buenos-Ayres on the great river La Plata, by Potoſi to Lima, the Capital of the Kingdom of Peru. By Anthony Zacharias Helms, Royal Spaniſh Director of Mines. 8vo. pp. 300, Dreſden, 1798.

Near

Mountains. Near Guancavelica the mountains are chiefly ſand-ſtone, or limeſtone; but ſtill equally high, and equally opulent. To the north of this place the ridge for a hundred miles, is ſaid to be calcareous, yet fertile in metallic ores. According to our author the ſummits near la Paz are the higheſt of the Andes; but he did not travel ſo far as Quito.

In ſeveral European countries the metals chiefly occur in argillaceous ſchiſtus; but it is ſurpriſing to find this ſubſtance predominate in ſo lofty and extenſive a range as the Andes, where upon the common theories granite might have been expected. It may be conjectured that this is the work of that prodigious ſubterranean fire iſſuing from ſo many volcanoes, and here, as would ſeem from the eruptions of mud, combined with ſubterranean waters; for this mud is the very matter of argillaceous ſchiſtus, and thus ejected during thouſands of years has become ſuperincumbent on the granite, which will probably be found on ſinking deep ſhafts, and is perhaps the principal ſubſtance in ſuch parts as are not volcanic. But on the contrary the eruptions of mud may proceed from a diſſolution of the primitive ſchiſtus; and in the formation of this globe nature ſeems to have ſtudiouſly concealed her proceſs: while from the attempts which have been made, we can only conclude that the reverſe of the beſt theories may perhaps approach the truth.

In the ſubſequent deſcription of South America, which muſt be reſtricted to narrow limits, the Spaniſh dominions will of courſe occupy the firſt place; and are followed by the Portugueſe, French, and Dutch. A fugitive idea of the native nations ſhall be ſucceeded by an account of the iſlands belonging to this part of the continent.

SPANISH DOMINIONS.

Extent.— Government. — Population. — Manners.— Language. — Cities. — Commerce.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Natural Curioſities.

Extent and Boundaries.

THE poſſeſſions of Spain in the ſouthern part of America, are of prodigious extent, from the Caribbean ſea to the moſt ſouthern promontory, according to the Spaniſh geographers; but the Engliſh maps ſeem juſtly to regard the regions to the ſouth eaſt, inhabited by the Tehuels, and other tribes confeſſedly independent, as excluded from the Spaniſh domain. In this point of view, the eaſtern ſhore, from the ſouth of the great river Parana, is open to the ſettlements of any foreign nation; and on the weſt the Spaniſh boundary ends at the gulf of Chonos, S. lat. 44°. The remaining length may be 3360 g. miles; but the medial breadth is not above 900. The whole length of the Spaniſh poſſeſſions in America may thus be computed at more than 5000 g. miles; though not equal in extent, yet far ſuperior in every other reſpect, to the Aſiatic empire of Ruſſia. On the eaſt the boundary between the Spaniſh poſſeſſions and thoſe of the Dutch and Portugueſe, is ſometimes aſcertained by ridges of mountains and rivers; but often conſiſts of an ideal line, obſerved upon a map at one glance, while a verbal deſcription would be unneceſſarily prolix. In general the Portugueſe territory in South America, is perhaps equal in extent to the Spaniſh, compenſating by its breadth, which includes the far greater part of the Maranon, for the deficiency in length.

Govern-ment. The Spaniſh territories are minutely divided into vice-royalties, audiences, provinces, governments, partidos, or departments, and miſſions, or pariſhes eſtabliſhed among the ſavages. The enumeration would not only be complex and tedious, but unſatisfactory, as frequent changes occur. The grand diviſions are the vice-royalty of Buenos-Ayres; that of Peru which includes Chili; and that of New Granada in the north: the capital of the firſt being Buenos-Ayres, of the ſecond Lima, and of the third Bogota, or Santa Fe de Bogota, N. lat. 4°. The vice-royalty of New Granada was eſtabliſhed in 1718; and that of Buenos-Ayres 1778: but the governments are ſtill too extenſive, and ought to be ſubdivided, as the vigilance of one man cannot prevent the groſſeſt malverſations and oppreſſions; and, in the opulence of the income, duty is ſacrificed to luxury.

Population. The general population of South America being, as already mentioned, about 13,000,000, it is probable that the Spaniſh poſſeſſions contain about 9,000,000. The uſe of ſpirituous liquors, and the ſmall pox, with another endemial diſeaſe, which acts at intervals like a peſtilence, obſtruct the increaſe of the natives. The Spaniards and Creols are far more numerous in New Spain, than in South America, where it is probable that they do not exceed 2,000,000. The product of the mines of South America is ſuppoſed to be about £.4,000,000 ſterling yearly; and the royal revenue perhaps amounts to £.800,000. But in Spain, according to Mr. Townſend, the colonies are ſcarcely conſidered as affording any free income to the crown, when all the expences incurred on their account are duly eſtimated.

Manners and Cuſtoms. The manners of the Spaniards in South America have been illuſtrated in many popular books of voyages. Among the native nations, the Peruvians are by far the moſt intereſting, having in ſome inſtances advanced nearer to civilization than the Mexicans. The Llama, which may be called a ſmall camel, had been rendered ſubſervient to their induſtry; and their buildings, erected of ſtone, ſtill remain, while of the earthen edifices of the Mexicans, even the ruins have periſhed. The hiſtory of the Peruvian monarchs is indeed vague and unſatisfactory, the noted Quipos ſomewhat reſembling the Wampum of the North Americans,

Americans, being brief and tranſitory records. The government of the Incas was a kind of theocracy, and the inhabitants revered a divine deſcent, not claimed by the Mexican monarchs. The religion of the Peruvians was that of love and beneficence; while the Mexicans ſeem, in their cruel rites, to have been wholly influenced by the fear of malignant deities. Some ſacrifices of the ſmaller animals, and offerings of fruits and flowers, formed the chief rites of Peruvian ſuperſtition. The Mexican monarchy was founded by the ſword, the Peruvian by ſuperiority of wiſdom; and the captives taken in war were not immolated, but inſtructed in the arts of civilization. An excellent writer juſtly pronounces, that the Peruvians had advanced far beyond the Mexicans, both in the neceſſary arts of life, and in ſuch as have ſome title to the name of elegant.[1] Manures and irrigation were not unknown, though a kind of mattoc formed the chief inſtrument of agriculture. Their edifices were ſometimes of bricks hardened in the ſun; but others were conſtructed of large ſtones, the walls however never exceeding twelve feet in height. The great roads between Cuzco and Quito are indeed ſlight and periſhable, when compared with European exertions, yet become wonderful, when eſtimated with the other parts of ſavage America. Their weapons and ornaments alſo diſplayed no ſmall degree of ſkill, particularly in cutting and piercing emeralds, a gem of great hardneſs. Amidſt all theſe laudable qualities, it is to be regretted, that ſuperſtition led them to ſacrifice numerous victims on the death of a chief; and a favourite monarch was ſometimes followed to the tomb by a thouſand ſlaughtered ſervants. Had the conqueſt of America been effected by the Spaniards at a period like the preſent, when European warfare has loſt half of its ferocity, the Peruvian monarchy might have been reſpected and preſerved, for in the other parts of South America there is a ſuperabundance of the precious metals to ſatiate the utmoſt wiſh of avarice. Whether the ruling people be chiefly cut off, or from the mere depreſſion of ſlavery, it is impoſſible to diſcover in the manners of the Peruvian natives any marks of their ancient advancement.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

[1] Robertſon, iii. 209.

Language. The language of the ruling people in Peru was called the Quichua, and it is ſtill cultivated by the Spaniſh clergy, as indiſpenſable in the converſion of the natives. The ſounds *b*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *r*, are wanting; but when the Spaniſh grammarians add the *x* and *z*, they forget that their own *x* is an *h*, or *ſh*, and their *z* is equally expreſſed by *ç*. The grammar of this language, and it is ſaid even that of the Tehuels, is nearly as variegated and artificial as the Greek, whence our wonder at the refinement of the Sanſcrit may perhaps ſuffer conſiderable abatement. As ſpecimens of this celebrated dialect of the Incas are very rare, a few ſhall be here ſelected.[a]

1	Huc
2	Yſcay
3	Quimça
4	Tahua
5	Chumpi picheca
6	çocta
7	Canchis
8	Puçac
9	Yſcon
10	Chunca
100	Pachac
1000	Huaranca
The arm	Ricra
Beard	çunca
Belly	Vicça
Canoe	Huampu
To die	Huanny, Pitini
A dog	Alleo
To drink	Upiani
The ears	Rinri
To eat	Micuni
The eye	Naui
A fiſh	Challhua
A foot	Chaqui
A friend	Cocho
Great	Hatun
A hatchet	Avri, champi
Hair	Caſpa
The head	Uma
A hog	Cuchi
A houſe	Huaci
Land	Allpa
Little	Huchuy
A man	Runa
The moon	Quilla
Mouth	Simi
Noſe	Cenca
Sea	Atun cocha, mama cocha *
Sun	Inti
Water	Unu, yacu
Woman	Huarmi

Theſe are choſen to correſpond with Dr. Forſter's Liſt, which is alphabetical, and far from being well ſelected. Some others follow.

River	Mayu
Mountain	Puna, acha
Lake	Cocha

[a] From the Arte y Vocabulario en la lengua general del Peru, llamada Quichua. Los Reyes (Lima) 1614, 12mo. *pen. aut.* The Quichua is ſaid to have been a new language eſtabliſhed by the Incas. The total abolition of any words held ominous by the ſavages of S. America is a ſingular circumſtance in the hiſtory of language. See Dobrizhoffer, ii. It is alſo ſingular that the ſound *mb* as *Mbao* ſeems only known in Africa and America. Humboldt obſerves that the language of the Caribs is general in lat. 10°, that of the Mariſitans towards the equator.

* *Cocha* ſignifies a lake, and *mama* is mother.

Father

Father	Yaya	*A ſhip*	Huampu
Mother	Mama	*People* or *Town*	Llacta
Huſband	Coça	*The hand*	Maqui
Son	Churi	*Iron*	Quellay
Brother	Huauquey	*Gold*	Cori
Siſter	Panay	*Gold duſt*	Chichi cori
Sand	Aco	*Silver*	Collqui
Good	Alli	*Fire*	Nina
Bad	Mana alli	*Many fires*	Nina nina
The Andes	Anti	*Snow*	Riti
A ſacrifice	Arpay	*Stone*	Rumi
Fleſh	Aycha	*An emerald*	Umina
A family	Ayllu	*The top of a mountain*	Uma
The tongue	Callu	*Yes*	Y
King	Capac	*No*	Mana
Queen	Coya	*Beauty*	çumay
A lance	Chuqui	*Love*	Cuyay, munay.*

LANGUAGE.

The chief cities in Spaniſh South America are Lima the metropolis, Buenos-Ayres, and Bogota. Lima was founded by Pizarro who called it the Ciudad de Los Reyes, probably becauſe the foundation was laid on the 6th January, the feſtival of the three kings. It is ſuppoſed to contain 54,000 inhabitants, little above a third part of the population of Mexico. The ſituation is in a pleaſant and ſpacious vale, near a ſmall river. The great ſquare contains the viceroy's palace, and the cathedral. The ſtreets are generally paved, and enlivened with little canals led from the river; but the houſes are low, on account of the frequent earthquakes. The churches and convents are rich and numerous; and there is an univerſity of ſome reputation. Rain is ſeldom or never ſeen, the clouds being attracted by the ſummits of the Andes. The moſt dreadful earthquake ſeems to have been that of 1747; when the port of Callao was totally ſubmerged, and of four thouſand inhabitants only two hundred eſcaped.* Cities.

Buenos-Ayres was founded in 1535, receiving its name from the ſalubrity of the air. The population is ſuppoſed to be about 33,000. It

* They want B, D, F, G, R, X, Z, yet the R is here, but it is to be ſoftly pronounced. It is declined by altering the terminations, as Runa a man, Runap of a man, Runapac to a man, &c. The verbs have alſo moods and conjugations, the terminations ſometimes extending to great length.

* Cuzco is nearly equal in ſize to Lima, and moſt of the houſes are neatly built of ſtone. It was the ancient capital of the Peruvian monarchy. See Ulloa, liv. vii. c. xii.

Cities. is the great reſort of paſſengers from Spain, who thence croſs the country by Cordova and Tucuman to Potoſi, there being an uninterrupted poſt-road, with poſt-houſes, and relays of horſes and carriages, acroſs the country to Peru.* Bogota is rarely viſited by travellers, and little is known, except its poſition on a ſtream which joins the river Magdalena.

Of the other chief towns Carthagena contains 25,000 ſouls; and Potoſi about the ſame number;† Popayan above 20,000; Quito 50,000; Riobamba and Guayaquil about 18,000 each; Cuenza about 26,000. Other places of note are St. Jago, Conception, and Mendoza, in Chili; Santa Fe on the Parana, Oruro, La Paz, Arequipa, Truxillo and Paſto in Peru; Panama, Maracaybo, Caracas, and St. Thome or Guayana in the north. The manufactures of Spaniſh South America are inconſiderable, being chiefly coarſe woollen cloths for the Indians and negroes, ſome cottons, hats, drinking glaſſes, &c. Among the exports are ſugar,

Commerce. cotton, cocoa, Peruvian bark and Vicuna wool.[2] But the chief exports are from the mines, of which the following ſtatements are given by Helms. From the official regiſters it appears that the coinage in Spaniſh America, from the firſt day of January to the laſt day of December 1790, was as follows.

	In Gold.	In Silver.	Total.
At Mexico	628,044 Piaſtres;	17,435,644 Piaſt.;	18,063,688 Piaſt.
At Lima -	821,168	4,341,071	5,162,239
At Potoſi	299,846	3,983,176	4,283,022
At St. Jago	721,754	146,132	867,886
Total -	2,470,812	25,906,023	28,376,835 ‡

* Montevideo is the only good port on the Parana, and is more ſtrongly fortified than Buenos-Ayres. Falkner, p. 64. An account of Buenos-Ayres may be found in the Monthly Magazine, March 1802, from the *Viagero Univerſal.*

† So Robertſon; but Helms, p. 121, computes the inhabitants of Potoſi at 100,000 including the ſlaves. Hence this city would ſeem to be the moſt populous and flouriſhing in all the Spaniſh territory of South America. La Paz, according to Helms, has more than four thouſand hearths or 20,000 inhabitants, being an elegant and clean town, chiefly trading in the noted tea of Paraguay. The population of Cuzco, the ancient capital, is alſo conſiderable: p. 145.

[2] Mercurio Peruano. Lima 1791.

‡ The piaſtre, not now coined, is generally valued at three ſhillings and ſixpence, being at Madrid computed at eight rials; while the dollar of ten rials is eſtimated at four ſhillings and ſixpence.

To account for the great difference of produce from the mines of Mexico, and from thoſe of Peru, Chili, and Buenos-Ayres, Mr. Helms alleges the following reaſons: 1. becauſe the kingdom of Mexico is much more populous than any other of the American provinces: 2. it is ſcarcely half the diſtance from the mother country, whence it is enabled the better to enforce obedience to the laws and regulations, habits of induſtry, good police, and economy: 3. the want of royal and private banks in Peru, where every thing is ſtill in its primitive chaotic ſtate: and laſtly, on account of the great encouragement which the induſtrious miner readily obtains in every commercial houſe of Mexico. If, concludes Helms, the provinces of Peru, Chili, and Buenos-Ayres, were in a ſimilar favourable ſituation as that of Mexico, there is no doubt that in Peru alone, on account of its incomparably richer and more numerous gold and ſilver mines, four times the quantity of theſe

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pence. The following is the ſtate of the mines in the new vice royalty of Buenos-Ayres as reported by Helms.

Names of Provinces.	Mines. Gold	Silver	Copper	Tin	Lead
Tucuman	2	1	2		2
Mendoza a Chile		1			
Atacama	2	2	1		1
Lipez, Province of Potoſi	2	1	1		1
Porco, Province of Potoſi	1	2	1		
Caranges		2	1		
Pacages or Berenguela		1			
Chucuyto		2			
Paucarcolla, Town Puno		1			
Lampa		2			
Montevideo	1				
Chicas or Tarifa	4	5			1
Cochabamba	1				
Zicazica	2				
Lavicaja	4				
Omaſuijos	4				
Avangaro	3				
Carabaya	2	1			
Potoſi		1			
Chayanza	2	3	1	1	1
Mizque		1			
Paria		1		1	1
Total	30	27	7	2	7

noble

Commerce. noble metals might be obtained, and perhaps a ſtill greater proportion, than what Mexico affords at preſent.[3]

Since the diſcontinuance of the galleons, and of the great fairs at Panama and Porto Bello, the commerce of Peru has been augmented by the arrival of merchant veſſels from Spain by the way of Cape Horn. Yet, according to Helms, the freedom of the trade has overſtocked the market with Spaniſh goods. As the Spaniards have no ſettlements in Africa, the numerous negroes in their American colonies were chiefly ſupplied by the Dutch, and by the Engliſh, under what is called the Aſſiento or Contract, ſettled in the reign of Anne; the conſequences of which have been delineated by a maſterly writer, to whoſe work the reader is referred, for more ample commercial details.[4]

The chief topics of natural geography have already been diſcuſſed in the general view of South America. A ſingular circumſtance in the Zoology. zoology is the great abundance of horſes and cattle, though originally unknown to the new continent; theſe ſurpriſing herds having been multiplied from a few that were turned looſe by the firſt ſettlers. The cattle are ſo numerous that they are hunted merely on account of the hides. An author, who reſided twenty-two years in Paraguay, informs us that they equal the Hungarian in ſize, the ſtandard length of the hide being three ells.[5] The great numbers have lately been thinned by the thoughtleſs avarice of the hunters. Horſes are alſo very numerous: and mules being indiſpenſable in the alpine countries, where they cannot be reared, about eighty thouſand are annually ſent from the plains of Paraguay to Peru.[6] To procure this mixed breed young aſſes are clothed in the freſh ſkins of foals, and introduced to the mares as their own offspring. Flocks of European ſheep alſo abound: but of this animal ſome ſpecies are peculiar to South America. Such is the *llama*, or more properly *runa*, for llama merely implies a beaſt or quadruped, which reſembles a ſmall camel, and will carry any load under a hundred weight. The vicuna is ſomewhat ſmaller, with ſhorter and finer wool; and of a brown colour, while the others are various.[7] The guanaca,

[3] P. 257, 258.
[4] Robertſon's Hiſtory of America, vol. iii.
[5] Dobrizhoffer, i. 246.
[6] Ib. 270.
[7] Ulloa, i. 440, in the Fr. i. 366. The pacos or alpaca ſeems to be a kind of vicuna.

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on the contrary, is a larger and coarſer animal than the runa, and chiefly employed in the mining countries, where other animals could not paſs the precipitous paths. Among the ferocious animals are diſtinguiſhed thoſe called by Buffon the jaguar, by other writers the tiger; and the cougar, by ſome called the American lion. The latter is of a reddiſh brown colour, while the former is marked with black ſpots upon a yelloviſh ground. But from Buffon's account of the jaguar it is evident that he only judged from a ſmall animal, probably ſent from French Guiana; for Dobrizhoffer informs us, that as the lions of Africa far exceed thoſe of Paraguay (the cougars) in ſize and ferocity, ſo the African tigers yield in magnitude to thoſe of Paraguay. He ſaw the ſkin of one killed the day before, which was three ells and two inches in length, or equal to that of a large ox; but he adds, the body is more ſlender than that of an ox.[1] According to the ſame author they kill and carry off oxen and horſes; and he gives ſuch ſingular inſtances of their ſtrength as to evince the error of Buffon's theory.* Other animals are, the wild cat, the elk, the huanaco, or guanaca, already mentioned, the antbear, &c. In the great river Maranon there appears to be a ſpecies of hippopotamus. In the alps toward Tucuman the condor is not unfrequent, ſeemingly a kind of vulture, with a red creſt, the body being black, ſpotted with white. The oſtrich is alſo found in the wide plains of Paraguay. Zoology.

The botany of the Spaniſh territories eaſt of the Andes is as yet wholly unknown to European ſcience, it is only therefore from analogy that we imagine the vegetables of theſe extenſive countries to reſemble thoſe which are natives of Guiana and Brazil. For the indigenous plants of Peru and Chili our only authority is the Flora Peruviana and Chilenſis of Ruis and Pavon, and of this work not more than a fourth Botany.

[1] I. 283.

* Bouguer, p. xviii. ſays that the tigers are as large and fierce as thoſe of Africa: they are happily few in number, one or two being ſufficient to deſolate a province. Theſe with the tiger of Guiana marked with black longitudinal ſtripes, (Bancroft, p. 137.) ſeem unknown to Buffon, and other zoologiſts. Pernety, in his account of Bougainville's voyage, p. 141, obſerves that the tigers near Montevideo are larger and more fierce than thoſe of Africa; a tame whelp four months old was two feet three inches in height.

Botany. part is as yet publiſhed. We know from the reports of navigators and occaſional travellers that the vicinity of the coaſt produces many of the Tropical fruits and vegetables, ſuch as the cabbage palm, the cocoa nut, the chocolate nut, the cotton ſhrub, the pine apple, the canna, amomum, turmeric, plantain, and ſugar-cane. But in the more temperate climate of the high plain of Quito, and upon the ſides of the Andes, it is natural to expect plants of a hardier conſtitution. Perhaps the beſt known and moſt generally intereſting of the trees are the ſeveral ſpecies of cinchona, from two of which at leaſt that valuable medicine the Peruvian or Jeſuits' bark is procured. The cardana alliodora is a large timber tree, remarkable for the ſtrong ſmell of garlic emitted from the leaves and freſh wood. A kind of coffee, the coffæa racemoſa, is met with in the mountainous groves of the interior, whoſe berries are applied to the ſame uſe as the cultivated ſpecies. The large flowered jaſmine and datura arborea diffuſe their evening fragrance round the neighbourhood of Lima, and braided in the hair of the women give and receive a reciprocal charm. No leſs than twenty-four ſpecies of pepper, and five or ſix of capſicum, are reckoned among the Peruvian natives, beſides ſeveral eſculent kinds of ſolanum, of which the S. lycoperſicon or love-apple, and S. tuberoſum or potatoe, are the beſt known and moſt eſteemed. The tobacco and jalap abound in the groves at the feet of the Andes, and many of the ornamental flowers of our Engliſh gardens and greenhouſes, ſuch as the ſingular and beautiful calceolaria, the reſplendent ſalvia longiflora, the graceful tropœolum or naſturtium, and the ſimple nolana proſtrata, are indebted to theſe countries for their origin.

Mineralogy. The mineralogy of theſe extenſive regions is univerſally celebrated as the moſt important in the world. In moſt accounts the mines of ſilver have been deſcribed at great length, while Brazil is conſidered as

Gold. the chief country of American gold. But the nobleſt metal alſo abounds in the Spaniſh poſſeſſions here, as well as in Mexico: and Gmelin has ſpecially enumerated the following places in Peru and Chili: Copiapo, Quaſco, Coquimbo, Petorca, Ligua, Tiltil, Putaendo, Caren, Alhué, Chibato, and Huilli-Patagua.' Ulloa informs us that the department of Popayan

Popayan abounds in mines of native gold; the richeſt being thoſe of Cali, Buga, Almaguar, and Barbacoas;[10] and there are alſo ſeveral mines in the noted diſtrict of Choco, ſome of which were abandoned on account of the abundance of platina, a more rare and ſingular metal than gold, but at firſt, as appears from our author and Bouguer, miſtaken for an obdurate pyrites. Other gold mines were near Zaruma, within the juriſdiction of Loxa; and ſome in the government of Jaen Bracamoros. Near the village of Angamarca, in the juriſdiction of Latacunga, was a mine of prodigious value.* Gold is alſo found in the ſand of many rivers that flow into the Maranon. But the ſtate of the mines of Buenos Ayres above given, as publiſhed by Helms, will convey a complete idea of this ſubject, and it thence appears that the ſilver mines are there far more productive than thoſe of gold, except the produce returned to St. Jago de Catagoita, about thirty miles to the South of Potoſi. Thoſe of ſilver being more numerous, and more eaſily worked, have excited the chief attention of the indolent coloniſts. MINERALOGY.

The celebrated mountain of Potoſi has preſented, for two centuries and a half, inexhauſtible treaſures of ſilver; while the gold ſeems thinly ſcattered by nature, and has no where been diſcovered in ſuch enormous maſſes. Hence, if the noted plain of Cineguilla in North America be excepted, there is hitherto no example of any gold mine eminently rich, far leſs rivalling the proud reputation of Potoſi. This mountain, of a conic form, is about 20 B. miles in circumference, and perforated by more than three hundred rude ſhafts, through a firm yellow argillaceous ſchiſtus. There are veins of ferruginous quartz, interſperſed with what are called the horn and vitreous ores. Of a peculiar dark reddiſh colour, this mountain riſes void of all vegetation, blaſted Silver.

[9] Linnæi ſyſtema, iii. 379.

[10] I. 450. Engl. tranſ. or i. 374. Fr. tranſ.

* Darien produced the fineſt gold, but the mines were loſt by a revolt of the natives, as has happened in ſeveral other provinces. Ulloa, liv. iii. c. v. In Chili the moſt celebrated gold mine is that of Petorca, to the E. of Santyago. Others are in Yapel, Liguia, and other parts of Chili mentioned by Ulloa, liv. viii. c. ix. In Coquimbo and Guaſco the whole earth ſeems compoſed of minerals: and there are mines of excellent copper. Ib. Humboldt ſays all the rivers of the Caracas roll down gold.

Mineralogy. by the numerous furnaces, which in the night form a grand ſpectacle."[11] This ſurpriſing mine was diſcovered, 1545, by Hualpa a Peruvian, who in purſuing ſome chamoys pulled up a buſh, and beheld under the root that amazing vein of ſilver afterwards called *la rica* or the rich. He ſhared this diſcovery with his friend Huanca, who revealed it to a Spaniard his maſter; and the mine was formally regiſtered 21ſt April 1545.*

Mercury. Another celebrated mine is that of mercury, indiſpenſable in amalgamating the precious metals. While Mexico is ſupplied from Spain, Peru has the native product of Guancavelica, a diſtrict and town not far to the S. W. of Lima, near the great bend of the old Maranon. The cinnabar had been uſed by the Peruvians as a red paint; and the quickſilver was firſt detected about 1567. The mine is now ſo large that there are ſaid to be ſtreets, and chapels where maſs is celebrated. This mineral ſeems alſo to be in argillaceous ſchiſtus of a pale red."[12]

Platina, &c. Platina is chiefly found in the mines of Choco and Barbacoas, in the vice-royalty of New Granada. Tin according to Helms is found at Chayanza and Paria; and there are alſo ſeveral mines of copper and lead. The chief copper mine was at Aroa; but the colonies are moſtly ſupplied from the mines at Cuba. Among the other minerals may be mentioned the gallinazo ſtone, ſo called from its black colour, being a volcanic glaſs or obſidian, ſometimes confounded with the Inca ſtone or mirror of the Incas, both being uſed as looking-glaſſes. According to Ulloa the Inca ſtone is of a leaden colour and ſoft, being probably a marcaſite or pyritical mixture, not yet analyſed. In the time of the Incas emeralds were alſo common, chiefly on the coaſt of Manta, and in the government of Atacames, where it is ſaid that there are mines which the Indians will not reveal, as they muſt encounter the labour of work-

[11] Notes to Ulloa, Memoires Philoſophiques, ii. 269.

* In the province of Carangas, about 70 leagues W. from la Plata are found in digging in the ſands, detached lumps of ſilver called *papas* (potatoes) being formed like that root. Ulloa, liv. vii. c. xiii. Near Puno was a celebrated ſilver mine, from which the pure metal was cut with a chiſel. Ib. c. xiv.

[12] Ib. 323. See alſo Ulloa's Voyage, liv. vii. c. xii.

ing them.* The river of Emeralds flows from the Andes to the North of Quito: and others of inferior quality are found near Bogota, where are the chief modern mines of Peruvian emeralds, juſtly preferred to all others, ſince thoſe of Egypt have been neglected. Thoſe found in the tombs are worked into ſpheres, cylinders, cones, and other figures, and pierced with great preciſion; but in what manner this was accompliſhed remains unknown. According to Ulloa rubies have alſo been obſerved in the juriſdiction of Cuenza. It is unneceſſary to mention the abundance of ſulphur, bitumen, and vitriol, or ſulphate of iron, commercially called copperas.† MINERALOGY.

The natural curioſities of all deſcriptions are numerous and grand. The volcanoes, the Andes, the interſection of the chain by the Lauricocha or falſe Maranon, have already been deſcribed. Among the numerous cataracts Bouguer mentions that of the river Bogota, which paſſes the city of the ſame name, alſo called Santa Fe, about eight leagues before it joins the Magdalena, ſaid to be a vertical fall of more than twelve hundred feet![13] However this be, the various ſcenes among the Andes muſt be variegated with every feature of ſublimity. Natural Curioſities.

* According to Bouguer, Figure de la Terre, p. xiii. the mountain which contained the emerald mines is ſtill known, being about five leagues from the ſea, on the South ſide of the river of Emeralds in the midſt of thick foreſts. In his opinion, p. xiv. the kingdom of Peru never can have been very populous, even the old villages being at the diſtance of ten or twelve leagues.

† In the diſtrict of Macas, on the E. of the Andes, are mines of *polvos azules*, tranſlated *ultramarine*, but of dangerous acceſs on account of the ſavages. Ulloa, liv. vi. c iv. Near the town of Conception in Chili are found quarries of ſhells on the tops of mountains fifty toiſes above the ſea. Ib. liv. viii. c. vi. What is called Amazonian ſtone, worn by the females on the Maranon, is a hard green jad which reſiſts the file; and it is difficult to conceive how they carved it. Condamine, p. 141.

[13] Figure de la Terre, xci. Humboldt ſays that ſome caverns throw out flames: and near the coaſt of Paria there is a noiſy volcano of air. Sometimes large plains are hollow; and in 1766, after earthquakes for eleven months, a plain opened on all ſides, ejecting ſulphureous water and bitumen.

PORTUGUESE.

THE dominions in South America, held by the ſmall kingdom of Portugal, extend from the frontier of Dutch Guiana, lat. 3° N. to port St. Pedro, S. lat. 32° being thirty-five degrees, or 2100 g. miles: and the breadth, from Cape St. Roque to the furtheſt Portugueſe ſettlement on the river of Amazons, called St. Paul de Omaguas, equals, if it do not exceed, that extent. This vaſt territory, rivalling the empires of antiquity, is ſtill more unknown than the Spaniſh poſſeſſions, partly from the want of ſcience and curioſity, partly on account of the thick foreſts which cover the expanſive plains of the Maranon, and its auxiliary ſtreams. Though long in ſtrict alliance with Portugal, we have little preciſe knowledge of Brazil; and ſtill leſs of the interior country ſo abſurdly called Amazonia, but more juſtly by the Spaniards the Land of the Miſſions. The chief city of Brazil was formerly Bahia or San Salvador, which has ſince yielded to Rio Janeiro. The others are Para and Cayta near the eſtuary of the Maranon, with a few ſmall ſettlements on that river; Parnamboco, Sergippe, Paraiba, Villa Grande, &c. the chief ſettlements of the Portugueſe being only thinly ſcattered along the ſhores. The fanaticiſm of the Spaniards and Portugueſe is an invincible obſtacle to the population of ſome of the fineſt regions of the globe; while by the free admiſſion of all ſects, as in the territory of the United States, induſtry and population would increaſe with ſurpriſing rapidity.

Brazil, as is well known, derived its name from the wood ſo called, which is mentioned by Chaucer, and was known for centuries before. It is now divided into eight independent governments, beſides that of Rio de Janeiro, of which alone the governor retains the ſtyle of Viceroy of the Brazils:[14] the diſcovery and improvement of the gold and diamond mines, about one hundred leagues to the N. W. having ſecured to Janeiro a decided preponderance. "But all the provinces are growing faſt into opulence and importance. They manufactured of late

[14] Staunton Embaſſy to China, i. 204.

ſeveral of the moſt neceſſary articles for their own conſumption; and their produce was ſo conſiderable that the balance of trade began to be already in their favour; and remittances of bullion were made to them from Europe, in return for the overplus of their exports beyond their imports."[15] From the ſame account it appears that the Portugueſe ſettlers have ſhewn repeated ſymptoms of revolt from the parent country. The population of this large portion of South America has not been accurately detailed; but it would ſeem that the Portugueſe and their deſcendents cannot amount to half a million, while the natives may be three or four millions.* The diamond mines belong excluſively to the crown: and one-fifth of the gold is exacted. There are alſo numerous taxes and impoſitions, which inſtead of enlarging the revenue are the grand cauſes of its diminution; and the expences of government conſume about one-third of the million ſterling, which Brazil is ſuppoſed to yield to Portugal.[16] The European ſettlers are in general gay and fond of pleaſure; yet, as at Liſbon, extremely obſervant of the ceremonies of religion, or rather of the etiquette of the Virgin Mary, who is ſtuck up in a glaſs caſe at every corner. Cloaks and ſwords are generally worn by the men. The ladies have fine dark eyes, with animated countenances, and their heads are only adorned with their treſſes, tied with ribbons and flowers. The convents and monaſteries are numerous, and the manufactories rare. Labour is chiefly performed by ſlaves, about 20,000 negroes being annually imported; the price about twenty-eight pounds, while in the Weſt Indies it is ſeventy; and even the monks and clergy keep black ſlaves. The indigenes are ſaid to be irreclaimable ſavages, under the middle ſize, muſcular, but active; of a light brown complexion, ſtraight black hair, and long dark eyes. They chiefly ſubſiſt apart, on the coaſt between Janeiro and San Salvador. Their language has not been inveſtigated by the incurious Portugueſe, who ſeem deſtined by nature to cover the faults of the

[15] Staunton Embaſſy to China, i. 204.

* According to Staunton, i. 195, all the whites in the Brazils were computed at 200,000, the negroes 600,000. Probably the natives do not exceed one million.

[16] Ib. 208.

Spaniſh

Brazil. Spaniſh coloniſts, and to evince that even European nations may be found deſtitute of knowledge and intelligence.*

Town of Janeiro. The harbour of Rio Janeiro is capacious and excellent; and ſurrounded by a fertile country. It is protected by the caſtle of Santa Cruz, erected on a huge rock of granite. On the weſt is the city of St. Sebaſtian, commonly called Rio de Janeiro, built on a tongue of land, the hills and rocks behind being crowned with woods, convents, houſes, and churches.[17] On a ſmall iſle are a dock yard, magazines, and naval ſtorehouſes; and there are ſeveral other iſles in the harbour behind the town. The ſtreets are generally ſtraight and well paved. Water is ſupplied by an aqueduct, on the Roman plan; for, notwithſtanding the name, there is no river of any note. The ſhops were full of Mancheſter goods, and Engliſh prints. Yet the ſituation of this beautiful city is ſaid to be unhealthy, owing to the exhalations from the primitive inland foreſts. There are manufactories of ſugar, rum, and cochineal; and ſeveral diſtricts produce cotton, indigo, coffee, cacao or chocolate, rice, pepper, and the noted Brazilian tobacco. The red or Brazil wood is the property of the crown. The natural hiſtory has been little explored: the circumjacent rocks are granitic, white, red, or deep blue, the laſt being of a cloſe and hard texture.

Mines. Concerning the celebrated mines of Brazil there is little information. They are ſituated in the mountains which give ſource to many ſtreams that flow north and ſouth into the river Tocantin, on one ſide, and the Parana on the other, but there are mines of gold as far inland as the river Cuyaba, which flows into the Paraguay, and even near the river Ytenas.† The diamond mines are near the little river of Milhoverde, not far from Villa Nova do Principe, in the province of Serro de Frio, S. lat. according to La Cruz 17° about long. 44° W. from London. This ſingular ſubſtance is not certainly known to be produced in any

* The ruling people in Brazil were the Tupinambas. See d'Acunha and Condamine. For the Mamaluks of St. Paul's, a kind of Buccaneers, ſee Dobrizhoffer, i. 179. The language moſt widely diffuſed in Brazil is the Quaranic, or that of the Guaranis. Ib. ii. 210.

[17] Staunton, i. 175.

† Others are near the river Peixe and Saguitinhonha, the Riacho-Fundo, and Guarapara in St. Paul's. M. S. Inf.

other

other part of the world, except Hindoſtan, and chiefly about the ſame north latitude 17°; but the diamonds of Brazil are not of ſo fine a water, being of a browniſh obſcure hue. In the northern provinces of Brazil there are numerous herds of wild cattle, which are ſlaughtered for the ſake of the hides. The river of St. Franciſco is remarkable for paſſing a conſiderable way under ground, after it has attained a great ſize.[18] Brazil.

The jealouſy and inertneſs of the Portugueſe government have effectually prevented any regular and ſcientific account of the natural productions of their vaſt and opulent dominions in S. America; and the few ſcattered fragments of Brazilian botany are chiefly to be collected from the journals of thoſe navigators who have touched at Rio Janeiro, and from the flora Luſitanica of Vandelli, which contains a few plants of Brazilian origin. The eſculent plants are ſuch as are common to all the tropical regions of America, among which may be diſtinguiſhed the plantain, the banana, the cocoa nut, the chocolate nut, the yam, potatoe, caſava, together with numerous ſpecies of melons and gourds. Of fruits the number is ſcarcely to be reckoned; the principal of them however, ſuch as the pine apple, the mango, and the tamarind have already been repeatedly mentioned in the account of the botany of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. The warm aromatic plants that are found here in a truly indigenous ſtate, and are much uſed by the inhabitants as condiments to their food, or the baſis of various drinks, are the ginger, the turmeric, ſeveral ſpecies of pepper, American coffee, capſicum or Guinea pepper, and the wild cinnamon (Laurus canella). Several medicinal plants of high eſtimation, though not peculiar to Brazil, yet grow here ſpontaneouſly and in abundance; theſe are the contrayerva, the Indian pink, (ſpigelia anthelmintica) the mechoacan, the jalap, the amyris yielding the gum elemi, and the guayacum. Woods for ornamental cabinet work, or for the uſe of the dyers, which are at preſent furniſhed by the more enterpriſing activity of the Dutch, French, and Engliſh coloniſts of Guiana and the W. Indies, might be procured in equal perfection and variety from Brazil; ſuch are the logwood, fuſtic, mahogany, ebony, Brazil wood, roſe wood, ſattin wood, and a multitude of others. The Botany.

[18] Adams in Ulloa, Engliſh tranſlation, ii.329.

Botany. merely ornamental plants are almoſt wholly unknown, but the Brazilian myrtle, the ſcarlet fuſchia, and the incomparably ſplendid amaryllis formoſiſſima, compoſe a moſt promiſing ſample of the hidden treaſures of this delightful country.

FRENCH.

Cayenne. The French ſettlements in Guiana were firſt formed about the year 1635, and extend from the mouth of a ſmall river called Amano, W. to another called Aracara E. though recently the limit was attempted to be extended, at the expence of the Portugueſe, to the eſtuary of the Maranon. On the S. the line ſeems arbitrary; but the whole extent does not exceed 350 B. miles in length, by 240 in breadth. The chief town is on a ſmall iſle called Cayano, whence the whole territory is commonly ſtyled Cayenne. The ſoil and climate in general ſeem unexceptionable; but the ſituation of the town being ill choſen, in a ſwampy iſle, its diſadvantages have been laxly aſcribed to the whole poſſeſſion. In the town are about 1200 white inhabitants, excluſive of the garriſon. This colony ſeems to have been always neglected by the parent country; and the inland parts remain obſtructed by thick foreſts and underwood; and during the rains many parts are inundated. The dry ſeaſon is from June till October, and the heavieſt rains in our winter months. The Cayenne pepper is a noted product of this country, and the inhabitants uſing it to exceſs, a conſiderable quantity is always imported from Peru. Other products are ſugar, cocoa, vanilla, and indigo.

DUTCH.

The Dutch poſſeſſions in Guiana commenced in 1663: but four years afterwards they were expelled by the Engliſh, whoſe deſcendents form part of the colony, reſumed by the Dutch in 1676. Dutch Guiana is to the N. W. of the French ſettlement, and is often called Surinam

rinam from a river of that name on which the capital is ſituated. The length S. E. to N. W. is about 350 B. miles, along the ſhores of the Atlantic; but the breadth only 160. The chief towns are Paramaribo, on the weſt bank of the Surinam, alſo called the Zeeland river, and New Middleburg near the N. W. extremity of the colony: Demerara is a ſettlement on a river of that name. The white inhabitants of the capital are computed at 1800. The largeſt river is the Eſquivo N. W. which receives the ſhort ſtream of the Demerara. The Berbiz and Corentin are alſo conſiderable rivers. An Engliſh medical gentleman, who reſided here for ſome years, has publiſhed a good account of the natural hiſtory of Guiana; and Captain Stedman, who was employed in reducing the revolted negroes in 1774, has added yet more largely to our knowledge.'[9] But the reſtricted nature of this work will only admit a few brief hints. The wet and dry ſeaſons alternate, each for three months. No mines have been diſcovered by the Dutch, who always prefer certain returns; and are far from being in ſufficient force to conteſt the inland parts with the ſavages, and Spaniards. Yet from the river Eſquivo there is no difficult acceſs to the lake of Parima, the fatal object of the wiſhes of Sir Walter Ralegh.* Bancroft confeſſes that they never penetrate even the lower foreſts. The ſilk cotton tree is often twelve feet in circumference, and hollowed into canoes of conſiderable burden. The Lauba is a peculiar amphibious animal, but of ſmall ſize, and what is called the tiger is of a greyiſh brown, variegated with black longitudinal ſtripes from head to tail: our author adds that they are ſomewhat leſs than thoſe of Africa; but the courſe of the ſtripes indicates a different ſpecies. One ſnake is deſcribed thirty-three feet in length, and three feet in circumference. The natives are of a

SURINAM.

[9] Bancroft's Natural Hiſtory of Guiana 1769, 8vo. Stedman's Surinam, 4to.

* He attempted to penetrate by the river Caroni, which riſes N. of the lake and flows into the Orinoco. The ſands of this lake were ſuppoſed to be of gold, and in the vicinity was the fabulous golden city Manoa del Dorado. Such fables diſplay the imagination of the early Spaniſh writers, the natives of Guiana being mere ſavages who never ſaw a village, and even the ſcite of the ſuppoſed city is totally unknown to La Cruz. Near the lake of Parima are the high mountains of Mei. Bouguer mentions that the rocks in this part of South America often wear the aſpect of towers and towns; and ſome ſuch rocks of talc or micaceous ſchiſtus occaſioned this romance, at which the fate of Ralegh's expedition, and of that learned commander, forbids us to ſmile.

Surinam. reddiſh brown or copper colour, like the other American tribes. Thoſe towards the coaſt are Caribbees, who being called in as auxiliaries to ſuppreſs a negro revolt, devoured the bodies of the ſlain.[29] Our benevolent philoſophers, who argue againſt the exiſtence of cannibals, might as well deny the exiſtence of ſavages; but nothing is more abſurd than a wiſe theory of human affairs, which are neither wiſe nor theoretical. The Worros are another maritime tribe; but the Arrowaks are the moſt diſtinguiſhed by elegance of form, and mildneſs of diſpoſition. They believe in a ſupreme deity, and in inferior malign ſpirits called Yawahoos. The prieſts or magicians are ſtyled Peiis, the diſtinction being hereditary.

Botany. There are more materials for the botany of Guiana collected by the French, Dutch, and Engliſh ſettlers, than for any other part of South America; and in conſequence of the ſwampy ſoil and moiſt atmoſphere of this region, it preſents a vigour and wild exuberance of vegetation, perhaps without parallel. All the uſual tropical productions, except thoſe that delight in dry and ſandy tracts, are found here in full perfection; the names and qualities of theſe however we ſhall not again repeat, but proceed to the notice of thoſe which are more properly characteriſtic.

Beſides the common ſpecies of palms, there are two which are reckoned almoſt peculiar to this part of America, but which, together with many other of the native plants of Guiana, have not yet found their way into the Linnæan ſyſtem. One of theſe, called the cokarito palm, is remarkable for its hard ſplintery wood, of which the ſmall poiſon arrows are conſtructed. The other, the manicole palm, grows only in the deepeſt and moſt fertile ſoil, where it attains the heighth of fifty feet, while its ſtem in the thickeſt part is ſcarcely nine inches in diameter. The annotta (bixa orellana) ſeems to be here in its favourite climate, as appears from its magnitude of growth and brilliancy of colour. The quaſſia, whoſe intenſe bitterneſs is become of late but too familiar to Engliſh palates, and the quaſſias imarouba, a medicinal drug of great efficacy, are alſo natives of Terra Firma; nor among

[29] Bancroft, 260.

the

the materials which the healing art derives from this country ought we to omit the mention of the ricinnus or caſtor oil nut, the caſſia fiſtula, the palm oil, the cowhage (dolichos pruriens), the balſam of capivi, and ipecacuanha. An herbaceous plant called troolies grows here, whoſe leaves are the largeſt of any yet known; they lie on the ground, and have been known to attain the almoſt incredible length of thirty feet, by three feet in width: ſo admirable a material for covering has not been beſtowed on this country in vain; moſt of the houſes are thatched with it, and it will laſt ſome years without requiring repair. The ſingularly elaſtic gum called caoutchouc is produced from a large tree inhabiting French Guiana, and here it is uſed for veſſels of various kinds and for torches. A ſmall tree called caruna yields a farinaceous nut, from which the ſlow poiſon of the Accawau Indians is prepared, the certain though protracted inſtrument of jealouſy or revenge. Still more certain, becauſe more rapid, is the Ticuna poiſon, the dreadful equal of that from Macaſſar: it is prepared from the roots of certain climbers called nibbees, which inhabit the entangled foreſts of theſe immeaſurable ſwamps, and are a worthy ſhelter to the panthers, the ſerpents, and all thoſe monſtrous and abominable reptiles that generate and batten in this peſtilential atmoſphere. Botany.

NATIVE TRIBES,

AND

UNCONQUERED COUNTRIES.

SOME account of the Peruvians has already been given, and the names of the ſavage tribes of South America are ſo numerous, that they might be counted by hundreds. Nor has any claſſification yet taken place according to languages; when probably theſe numerous families

families might be reduced to five or ſix great denominations, as has been recently effected in arranging the tribes of Siberia. It was believed that Guiana contained a conſiderable nation, with cities and towns; but on the contrary, it is divided among numerous tribes, among which are many of the Caribs or Caribbees, the moſt ferocious of ſavages. The nations, ſo marked in the map of La Cruz, are diſtinguiſhed from the ſtrolling families, but are merely tribes from two to five thouſand ſouls.[21] Of the indigenes of Darien a minute account has been given by Wafer, and of the Caribs by Edwards, of the Tehuels or Patagonians by Falkner. A German miſſionary, who reſided twenty-two years in Paraguay has publiſhed curious details concerning the Abipons, whom he calls a warlike nation, but who only conſtitute a tribe of about five thouſand, on the Rio Grande, which joins the Paraguay near its union with the Parana. The Abipons being leſs known to the Engliſh reader, ſome account of them may be ſelected. They are rather a warlike race, and by a novelty in American manners chiefly cavalry, ſecuring and taming the wild horſes introduced by the Spaniards; and in the ſame quarter the Mocobs, Tobas, and Aucas are alſo warlike and independent tribes. In this part of America greater fairneſs of complexion ſeems to prevail, than in the exterior provinces; and the women approach the tint of Europeans. The Abipons were anciently named Callegaes by the Spaniards, on account of their ſingular practice of eradicating the hair over their foreheads, ſo as to produce the appearance of baldneſs; but their features reſemble the European, and the noſe is commonly of an aquiline form.[22] They carefully eradicate the beard, originally ſmall; and mark their foreheads and temples with particular ſcars, by way of ornament. The males are accuſtomed from childhood to the uſe of the bow. Hunger alone dictates the time to eat; and they conſume vaſt quantities of animal food. Perſonal clean-

Abipons.

[21] The nations are marked *N.* the families *T.* for *Tndios* or Indians. Humboldt in a letter to Fourcroy, ſays that the Otomacs on the Orinoco ſubſiſt for months on a kind of fat earth! On the river Caſkiara, under the equator, no human being is to be ſeen for the ſpace of 130 leagues. He mentions a nation who live on ants, and a colony would be uſeful in Africa or the Weſt Indies. His map would be valuable, if he have made aſtronomical obſervations, as he ſays, in 54 places. See Monthly Magazine; Auguſt, 1801.

[22] Dobrizhoffer, ii. 15, 21, &c.

lineſs

lineſs is preſerved by frequent bathing in the lakes and rivers. They have no idea of a ſupreme deity, but acknowledge an evil demon whom they commonly attempt to flatter by calling him their uncle. Their magicians are called Keevet, and they have great power as uſual among ſavage tribes, a tribute of ferocity to knowledge.* Polygamy is allowed but not frequently practiſed; and the babe being ſuckled to the age of three years, the mothers frequently deſtroy their offſpring, that they may devote their attention to their huſbands. Our author, an unprejudiced German, ridicules the idea of Spaniſh cruelty, and imputes the thinneſs of the population to this, among other cauſes. They have no idea of a monarch, but are ruled by many caziks, whom they call *capitas*, from a Spaniſh term: and are not advanced to the agricultural ſtate; but they are not cannibals, like ſome of the ſurrounding nations. In diſcuſſing the language of the Abipons, our author has obſerved that the number of tongues in Paraguay exceeds credibility, not merely dialects, but radically and totally diſtinct. The ſame ideas were entertained concerning thoſe of Siberia and Tatary, till they were more completely ſtudied. The Quaranian language ſeems one of the wideſt; and that of the Abipons reſembles that of the Mocobs and Tobas. The moſt peculiar ſound is a guttural, compoſed of *r* and *g*, which ſeems to reſemble the *clapp* of the Hottentots; and the words are often very long, as among the ſavages of North America. They uſe the maſculine and feminine gender, and decline the nouns by prefixes. The additional information ſubjoined by our author, concerning ſome other American dialects, might be uſeful in a general ſurvey of that obſcure ſubject. The Abipons ſeldom marry till the huſband and the bride have exceeded their twentieth year; and the lady is purchaſed from her relations at the price of four horſes, and woollen cloths of various colours, ſomewhat reſembling Turkey carpets. They pretend to expedite the birth by a mixture of cabbage juice and wine; and on the birth of a cazik's eldeſt ſon many ceremonies are obſerved. From the thickneſs of the ſkin, or ſome other cauſe, the ſmall pox is peſtilential to the indigenes of ABIPONS.

* The Tehuels ſtyle the chief demon Elel or Balichu, the inferior demons Quezubu; the Brazilians and Quaranians ſtyle the demon Ananga. Ib. 100, 101.

Abipons. America. The Abipons chiefly bury their dead under the ſhade of trees; and the horſes of a chief or warrior are always ſacrificed on the occaſion. The bones are afterwards diſinterred, as among the Tehuels, and carried to a conſiderable diſtance.* They have rendered themſelves formidable to the inland coloniſts by their warlike ſpirit; and are armed with ſpears five or ſix ells in length, and with arrows ſometimes pointed with iron.

The extremities of South America, towards the ſtrait of Magalhaens, may, as already mentioned, be regarded as independent. Towards the eaſt are vaſt ſaline plains, called by the Spaniards Comarca Deſierta, or the deſert territory, whence the deſert of Comarca in our maps. The natives of this region are deſcribed by Falkner, who ſays that a cazik of the Puelches or Patagonians, with whom he was acquainted, was ſeven feet and ſome inches in height. The Moluches form another

Araucanos. nation or tribe called by the Spaniards Araucanos.† The Puelches, by his account, are divided into three or four tribes, the moſt ſouthern being the Tehuels, extending on the eaſt to the ſtraight; as the Huilliches, a tribe of the Moluches, do on the weſt. The Tehuels are the proper Patagonians, and may be called the Tatars of South America, being wandering warriors, but courteous and humane. The dead among the Moluches are buried in ſquare pits, in a ſitting poſture, with their weapons and drinking utenſils; and an old matron annually opens the grave to cleanſe and clothe the ſkeletons. Around are thoſe of the ſlain horſes, ſupported with props. The Tehuels, after having dried the bones of their dead, tranſport them to the deſert on the ſea coaſt, where they are placed in huts or tents, ſurrounded by the ſkeletons of their horſes; but the latter practice muſt be of comparatively modern date. Theſe tribes have hereditary caziks called Elmens or Yas: and they ſometimes chooſe an Apo, or commander in chief, whence they are more formidable to the Spaniards than the northern tribes.

* A ſimi'ar cuſtom prevails among ſome African tribes: and the worſhip of the Pleiades, known in ſome parts of America, is alſo practiſed in Africa, where they are underſtood to indicate the approach of the rainy ſeaſon.

† The *Araucanos*, that is *inſurgents*, extend from the river Biobio, lat. 37, to the river Callacalla, lat. 40. See the map in Molina, *Storia Civile del Chili*, Bologna, 1787, 8vo.

The wives are ſometimes bought very young, at the price of beads, caſcabels, (or little hawks' bells), garments, or horſes: and polygamy is common. According to our author, the language of the Moluches is more copious and elegant than could have been expected, the verbs having three numbers, and as many tenſes as the Greek. The maps publiſhed by our author are certainly erroneous, and bear little reſemblance to that of La Cruz, except in the poſition of the tribes; but it appears from Dobrizhoffer that the author, Thomas Falconer or Falkner, was a well known miſſionary in South America. The ſingular aſpect of Patagonia, delineated with innumerable ſtreams ending in little lakes, may well appear, (without the aſſiſtance of La Cruz, who has only repreſented four of that kind), as foreign to the courſe of nature. Yet this country has many ſingularities. There is an immenſe tract of territory impregnated with nitre, about 600 miles in length and 150 wide, on the ſouth and weſt of the river Parana, and even to the junction of the Paraguay, all the ſprings and rivulets being more or leſs ſaline. No productive mines have yet been diſcovered; except ſome of ſilver, near Mendoza, at the bottom of the Andes. "The rivers that waſh this country all come from the high mountains of Yacanto, or Sacanto, Champachin, and Achala on the W. of Cordova, which are little inferior in height to the Andes of Chili, and are a kind of branches of thoſe of Peru." That part of the Andes which lies W. of Mendoza is of a vaſt height, and always covered with ſnow; and there are numerous volcanoes in the ſouthern part of the Andes, as that of St. Clement, lat. 46°, and others in a continued progreſs to lat. 31°. The Caſuhati is a high chain of mountains, part of a triangle, one ſide extending to the Andes, another to the ſtrait of Magalhaens. PATAGONIA.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO SOUTH AMERICA.

THESE ſhall be traced from the weſt towards the eaſt. The deſert iſles of Galapagos have already been mentioned in the account of Polyneſia, Juan Fernandez.

Juan Fernandez.

or the iſlands in the Pacific; and that of St. Felix is of no conſequence. The iſle of Juan Fernandez, ſo called from the firſt diſcoverer, is only about four leagues in length, with an anchoring place on the northern coaſt, which is diverſified with many beautiful kinds of trees. The ſouthern part is precipitous and barren; but there are ſome hills of a red earth approaching to vermilion. Many antiſcorbutic plants are found on Juan Fernandez, which is celebrated in the voyage of Anſon.

There are two remarkable archipelagoes towards the ſouthern extremity of this continent. That ſtyled the gulf of Chonos, or the archipelago of Guaytecas; and that called the gulf of the Holy Trinity, or the archipelago of Toledo. The moſt remarkable iſle in the former

Chiloe.

is that of Chiloe, about 140 B. miles in length by 30 in breadth, but almoſt divided in the middle by bays or creeks. The chief harbour is Chacao on the N. and at Calbuco there is a corrigidor, nominated by the preſident of Chili: there are alſo two monaſteries and a church.[23] The iſle of Chiloe is ſaid to be well peopled with Spaniards, mulattoes, and converted ſavages. In the ſecond archipelago, which approaches the antarctic froſts, is the iſland of St. Martin, in which there ſeem to be ſome Spaniſh ſettlements or factories: and not far to the S. begins that broken ſeries of wintery iſlands, called the Terra del Fuego, from two or more volcanoes, which vomit flames amidſt the dreary waſtes

Terra del Fuego.

of ice. In the map of La Cruz the Terra del Fuego is divided by narrow ſtraits into eleven iſlands of conſiderable ſize. In their zeal for natural hiſtory, Sir Joſeph Banks and Doctor Solander had nearly periſhed amidſt the ſnows of this horrible land; but they found a conſiderable variety of plants. The natives are of a middle ſtature, with broad flat faces, high cheeks, and flat noſes, and they are cloathed in the ſkins of ſeals. The villages conſiſt of miſerable huts in the form of a ſugar loaf: and the only food ſeems to be ſhell fiſh. This dreary region is not however ſo completely oppreſſed by winter, as has by ſome been imagined, the vales being often verdant, and enlivened with brooks,

[23] Ulloa, ii. 264.

while

while a few trees adorn the ſides of the hills. The iſle called Staten-land is divided from the Terra del Fuego by the ſtrait of Le Maire. Here alſo Captain Cook obſerved wood and verdure. So much more ſevere is the cold in the antarctic region, that theſe countries only in lat 55°, or that of the north of England, are more frozen than Lapland, in lat. 70°. Terra del Fuego.

To the N. E. are the iſlands called Falkland by the Engliſh, but by the French Malouins, from the people of St. Maloes whom they eſteem the firſt diſcoverers.* In 1763 the French having loſt Canada, turned their attention towards theſe iſlands, as an American ſettlement in another quarter; and the account of Bougainville's voyage for that purpoſe, publiſhed by Pernety, contains ample details concerning theſe iſlands. There are two of conſiderable ſize, each about 40 miles ſquare. The ſoil and climate do not appear to be laudable, but there is a conſiderable variety of fowls and fiſh; and the plants ſeem ſomewhat to reſemble thoſe of Canada. The walruſs, and other animals of the ſeal kind, frequent the ſhores. In 1764 Commodore Byron was ſent to take poſſeſſion of theſe iſlands, which were undoubtedly firſt diſcovered by the Engliſh; and a little eſtabliſhment was made at a place called Port Egmont, but being found of little or no value they were in a few years ceded to Spain. The ſoil is marſhy, and even in ſummer there are perpetual ſtorms; and the Spaniards ſeem only to retain a ſmall factory on the north. Falkland Iſles or Malouins.

In this department may alſo be arranged, an iſland of conſiderable ſize to the S. E. of the Falkland iſlands, diſcovered by La Roche in 1675, and afterwards named Georgia by Captain Cook, who explored it with ſome attention in 1775. It may be called a land of ice, preſenting rocks and mountains of that ſubſtance, while the vales, deſtitute of trees or ſhrubs, are clothed with eternal ſnow; the only vegetables being a coarſe ſpecies of graſs, burnets, and lichens. The rocks are of Georgia.

* The name of Falkland is ſaid to have been given by Captain Strahan in 1639, probably in honour of Viſcount Falkland. From Pernety's account, p. 226, there is little herbage except on the N. E. and E. the ſouthern antarctic winds being extremely cold. The rocks are of quartz, with ſome pyrites and marks of copper. Grey and reddiſh ſlate is common, with red and yellow ochres.

Georgia. blackiſh horizontal ſlate, perhaps approaching to hornblende. The lark, a hardy and univerſal bird, appears here as well as at Hudſon's Bay, and there are numbers of large penguins and ſeals. Still further to the S. E. are, if poſſible, more dreary lands, more properly ſtyled the Southern Thule, than the Sandwich iſlands, a name already beſtowed on a very different country. Theſe iſlands may be ſtyled the ſouthern throne of winter, being a maſs of black rocks covered with ice and ſnow.

Among the few iſlands to the eaſt of South America may be mentioned that of Aſcenſion or Trinidada, and that of Ferdinando Noronha; that of Saremburg may alſo be regarded as an American iſle, while Triſtan da Cunha rather belongs to Africa.

AFRICA
NORTH
SOUTH
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
INDIAN
OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
SAHARA or Great DESERT
Equinoctial Line
Tropic of Cancer
Tropic of Capricorn
Cape Verd Is.
Canary Is.
Madeira
Azores
St Helena
Ascension
Cape Town
Cape of Good Hope
Cape Lopez Gonsalvez
Cape Negro
Cape Blanco
Cape Bojador
Cape Spartel
Cape Bon
Cape Blanc
Cape Verd
Cape St Mary
Cape St Vincent
Cape St Roque
Cape Corrientes
Cape Guardafui
Cape Delgado
Cape Natal
Cape Agulhas
Cape Negro
Cape Frio
Cape Lopez
Cape Formosa
Cape St Thomas
Cape Three Points
Cape Palmas
Cape Mesurado
Cape Verga
Cape Rouge
Cape Blanco
Cape Tabin
Cape Bona
Cape Farina
Cape Carthage
Cape Zibeb
Cape Bona
Cape Serrat
Cape Negro
Cape Blanco
Cape Bojador
Cape Nun
Cape Ghir
Cape Cantin
Cape Spartel
Cape Tenez
Cape Matifou

AFRICA.

Extent.—Original Inhabitants.—Progreſſive Geography.—Religion.—Climate.—Rivers.—Mountains.—Deſerts.

THIS continent is, after Aſia and America, the third in ſize; but in political and ethical eſtimation is the laſt and meaneſt of the four great diviſions of the earth. From the ſouthern extremity to the Mediterranean are about ſeventy degrees of latitude, or 4200 g. miles. The breadth, from 18° weſt to 51° eaſt, may be aſſumed on the equator at 4140 g. miles. The name is ſuppoſed to have ſpread by degrees from a ſmall province, in the north, over the reſt of the continent. In the central parts on the ſouth the population appears to be indigenous and peculiar, theſe being the native regions of the negroes, whoſe colour, features, and hair, diſtinguiſh them from all the other races of mankind. In the northern parts there have been many ſucceſſions of inhabitants, the Egyptians and Abyſſinians being of Arabian extract; while further to the weſt the Carthaginians paſſed from Syria: and according to Salluſt, who refers to Punic manuſcripts, other maritime parts were peopled by the Medes, Perſians, and Armenians. Yet his derivations ſeem rather fanciful; and there is little certainty except with regard to the Carthaginians. The original inhabitants of the northern parts appear to have been, in all ages, radically diſtinct from the negroe race, from whom they were divided by the great deſert of Zaara; and in the eaſtern parts the latter were yet further repelled, by the Arabian colony which ſettled in Abyſſinia.* Theſe northern inhabitants ſent

Extent.

Original Population.

* Other ancient Arabian colonies ſeem to have penetrated far to the ſouth, and are traced in Madagaſgar and the oppoſite ſhores. The name *Kaffers* or *Unbelievers*, is vague, and ought to be diſcontinued.

The actual population of Africa cannot exceed thirty millions; or perhaps even twenty.

conſiderable

Original Population.

conſiderable colonies into Spain; and from the Roman hiſtorians it appears that they had made ſome little progreſs in the arts of life. Even Herodotus is no ſtranger to theſe two diſtinct races of mankind.

The Romans appear to have explored the north of Africa as far as the river Nigir; and they eſtabliſhed flouriſhing colonies in many parts. Upon the fall of their empire the Vandals of Spain paſſed into Africa, A. D. 429, and eſtabliſhed a kingdom which laſted till A. D. 535. In the following century the Mahometan Arabs ſubdued the north of Africa; and under the name of Moors conſtitute a great part of the preſent population. There have been recently diſcovered in the interior ſome nations or tribes of a copper colour, with lank hair; but the geography of this country is too imperfect to admit of preciſe illuſtration of theſe topics.

Progreſſive Geography.

The progreſſive geography of this continent might ſupply topics for a long and intereſting diſſertation. Herodotus, whoſe African geography has been amply illuſtrated by Rennell, was no ſtranger to the northern parts, from Mount Atlas in the weſt to the Ethiopians above Egypt; and ſpecially mentions the great central river or Nigir, as running towards the eaſt. Concerning the voyage of Hanno the Carthaginian the learned have not agreed; and far leſs concerning the voyage ſaid to have been performed by the orders of Necho king of Egypt. Suffice it here to obſerve, that Rennell ſuppoſes the ancient knowledge of the African ſhores to have extended to Sherboro Sound, to the ſouth of Sierra Leone; while M. Goſſellin reſtricts that knowledge to the cape and river of Nun, which he ſuppoſes to be the Nia of Ptolemy.[1] Of the two opinions that of Rennell has certainly a greater claim to probability; but perhaps the truth may be in the middle, and the knowledge of Ptolemy may expire at Cape Blanco, or perhaps be extended to Cape Verd. D'Anville ſuppoſes that the mountains called the Chariot of the Gods were thoſe of Sierra Leone; thus coinciding with Rennell.*

On

[1] Recherches ſur la Geographie des Anciens. Paris 1798, 4to. Theſe two volumes only relate to the geography of Africa.

* From Goſſellin's Recherches, i. 129, it may be inferred that in Ptolemy's maps the rivers Subos, Salathos, and Chuſarios, are repetitions of Subur, Sala, and Cuſa, and the town Salathos of

Progressive Geography.

On the eaſtern ſhores the knowledge of the ancients does not appear to have extended beyond the iſle of Pemba, S. lat. 5°, or the vicinity. But of the interior parts Ptolemy, who reſided in Egypt, appears to have had more preciſe knowledge in the ſecond century, than has ſince been attained in any age. One of the moſt ſtriking defects in the maps adapted to his work by Agathademon is, that ſufficient ſpaces are not left for the wide foreſts and deſerts. Hence in Germany, Perſia, Arabia, and other inſtances it has already been ſhewn that diſtant poſitions are often crowded together. In the map of Africa the ſame deficiency is apparent, the proper ſpace not being left for the great deſert of Zaara. Hence the ſource of the Nigir, lat. 11°, is elevated to lat. 18°, and its courſe approaches the Land of Dates. On the other hand the ſouthern parts of Ptolemy's map are too much expanded, and filled with numerous names of ſmall tribes, like La Cruz's map of South America. The moſt remarkable feature, in the deſcription of the Egyptian geographer, is the river Gir, which he delineates as equal in length to the Nigir; but running from eaſt to weſt, till it be loſt in the ſame lake, marſh, or deſert, as the Nigir. This name of Gir or Ghir is certainly juſt and native, as there is another river of the ſame name in the country of Tafilet or Sijilmeſſa: and it is not a little ſurpriſing that Rennell, in his

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of Sala. This ſeems incontrovertible; but there do not appear to be any other repetitions. The projection of Arſinarium, and its poſition with reſpect to the Canaries, indicate Cape Bojador. The three rivers that follow ſeem to be that del Ouro, St. Cyprian, and ſome ſmaller ſtream; and it is probable that the White (by ſome called Black) mountains are the Chariot of the Gods, while the ancients did not paſs the bold promontory of Cape Blanco, within which the ſea makes a receſs, as expreſſed by Ptolemy. Suppoſing Atlas Major to be near cape Geer, where that great range really terminates, it will embrace about one third of the ancient knowledge, (Ptolemy's map) which could not thus extend beyond Cape Blanco.

The ancient nautical obſervations of mountains, &c. were not reſtricted, as in modern times, to the mere coaſts, but embraced lofty inland mountains, and other ſtriking objects within view. The Sailing Directions for the coaſt of Africa, 1799, mention, p. 15, a remarkable peak to the ſouth of Cape Bojador; and the prodigious roaring of the ſea, produced by the ſhooting of the ſtreams againſt each other, and which begins (ib. p. 16.) not far to the north of Cape Blanco, may well have terrified the ancients from any further progreſs. Nay the doubling of Cape Bojador itſelf was long an object of terror to the Portugueſe. Upon the whole there ſeems reaſon to conclude, with ſome certainty, that Cape Blanco was the utmoſt limit of ancient knowledge in this quarter; but the face of the coaſt has been greatly changed, even in modern times, by the force of the currents, and the accumulation of ſand.

Progressive Geography.

theory of theſe regions, ſhould have totally omitted this ſtriking feature. The Arabian geographer Edriſi, who wrote in the twelfth century, ſeems to indicate the Gir only, when he ſpeaks of the Nile of the Negroes, as running to the weſt, and loſt in an inland ſea, in which was the iſle Ulil. The river Bahr Kulla of Browne appears to be the Gir of Ptolemy. A further conſideration of this curious ſubject is reſerved for the laſt ſection of this brief deſcription, in which the diſcoveries and conjectures concerning the central parts are recapitulated. Suffice it here to obſerve, that as the ancient diſcovery of the river Nigir was made from the north, and not from the weſt, it cannot be conſidered as affecting the queſtion concerning their knowledge of the weſtern ſhores.

It is remarkable that Ptolemy's deſcription of theſe ſhores extends little beyond the Fortunate or Canary iſlands, though it may have been expected, that as one of theſe iſlands was aſſumed as the firſt meridian, their poſition ſhould have been pretty accurately determined. The ancient knowledge of the oppoſite ſhores might be beſt illuſtrated by views of the head lands and mountains, viſible from the ſea, ſo as to judge of the appearances which give name to the Chariot of the Gods, probably a mountain between two ſmaller like wheels, or ſome other fancied reſemblance. Meanwhile it ſeems moſt likely that cape Bojador is the Arſinarium of Ptolemy; and that the White Mountains, or perhaps the Seven Hills, or Angel Hills, are the noted Chariot of the Gods. If the ancients had diſcovered Cape Verd, it is probable that the iſlands called by the ſame name could not have eſcaped their knowledge; yet no geographical enquirer has been led to infer that their geography extended ſo far; nor do the Arabs appear to have made any diſcoveries in this quarter. On the contrary, even the memory of the Fortunate Iſlands appears to have been loſt, when the Normans of France, a people who inherited from their anceſtors the Norwegians, a ſingular diſpoſition for maritime enterpriſe, again diſcovered them in the fourteenth century; and in 1402 they were conquered by Bethencourt.[2] This achievement appears to have acted as the firſt impulſe towards any efforts in that quarter. In 1412 John I. king of Portugal, reſolving to

[2] Hiſtoire de la premiere deſcouverte et conqueſte des Canaries. Paris, 1630, 8vo.

retaliate

retaliate the attacks of the Moors, fitted out a fleet to aſſail the coaſts of Barbary: and a few veſſels were diſpatched to explore the ſouthern part of that country, as an attack from behind, or in an unguarded quarter, might reaſonably promiſe more deciſive ſucceſs. Cape Nun had before been the utmoſt limit of Portugueſe adventure, which was now extended to Cape Bojador. Prince Henry, the fourth ſon of king John, being fortunately a lover of ſcience, fitted out ſhips to proſecute the diſcovery; and in 1419 Madeira was diſcloſed,* and its fertility and exquiſite climate ſoon invited a ſmall colony. PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

Yet ſo ſlow was the progreſs of diſcovery in Africa, that Cape Bojador † was firſt paſſed in 1433:[3] but the impulſe having become vigorous, the diſcoveries were now more rapid; and in the ſpace of a few years all the coaſt from Cape Blanco to Cape Verd, with the river of Senegal, was unveiled by the Portugueſe, aſſiſted by Italian navigators. So important did theſe diſcoveries now appear, that pope Eugene IV. granted a bull of poſſeſſion to the Portugueſe, of all the countries which they ſhould diſcover, from Cape Nun to India. The iſlands of Cape Verd were diſcovered in 1446;[4] and the Azores, which from their relative poſition ſtrictly belong to Europe, were all known before 1449. Yet in 1463, when prince Henry died, not above 1500 miles of the coaſt of Africa had been viſited; and the equator was not paſſed till 1471. But the diſcovery of the gulf of Guinea, which in the ancient ideas might have been expected to terminate the continent; and of the ſtill further ſouthern protraction of the African ſhore; were far from being inconſiderable achievements.

* Bergeron, p. 36, ſays that Madeira had been already diſcovered by the Engliſh, 1344.

† This word in the Portugueſe ſignifies a *doubling ſhore*: in the Spaniſh *bojar* is to compaſs or go around. Currents render this whole coaſt extremely dangerous; and the ſafeſt navigation is on the W. of the Canaries. The ancients diſplayed no ſmall courage in paſſing Cape Bojador, long an object of terror to the Portugueſe.

[3] Robertſon's America, i. 59. The commander was Gilianez. Barros, Dec. 1. fol. 10. Italian tranſlation by Ulloa, Venice, 1562, 4to.

[4] Robertſon, ib. Barros is not preciſe in dates; but ſays, fol. 32, that the iſles of Cape Verd were diſcovered by Antonio di Nolle of Genoa. He is the Antoniettus Ligur of Cadamoſto, who was preſent; and whoſe firſt voyage was thus 1445, the ſecond 1446; not 1455 and 1456, as corruptly dated in the Italian edition, Vicenza 1507, 4to.

Progressive Geography.

The protection of John II. king of Portugal led to ſtill further diſcoveries. Congo aroſe to notice in 1484; and the ſtars of another hemiſphere began for the firſt time to appear to aſtoniſhed Europeans. Hopes were ſoon entertained of a maritime paſſage to India; and an embaſſy was diſpatched to Abyſſinia to ſecure the friendſhip of the monarch, in caſe the circumnavigation ſhould be completed. At length, in 1486, the conduct of a voyage for this purpoſe, the moſt arduous at that time attempted in modern hiſtory, was committed to Bartholomew Diaz, who diſcovered near a thouſand miles of new country; and at length deſcried that grand promontory, the utmoſt ſouthern limit of Africa. But ſuch was the violence of the tempeſts, that Diaz found his fleet unfit to navigate unknown ſeas, where the chance of refitment was uncertain; and, after a voyage of ſixteen months, this great navigator was conſtrained to return, having named the utmoſt promontory *Cabo Tormentoſo*, or the Cape of Tempeſts; but king John, as a better omen, aſſigned the received appellation of the Cape of Good Hope.

Intelligence from Abyſſinia having confirmed the poſſibility of a paſſage, and trade with India, another expedition was inſtituted, which was further ſtimulated by the grand diſcoveries of Colon in 1492; and the ſucceſs of Vaſco de Gama, who, on the 20th November 1497, paſſed the Cape of Good Hope, and explored the eaſtern coaſts of Africa as far as Melinda in Zanguebar, whence he paſſed to India and arrived at Calicut 22d May 1498, is recorded as the moſt diſtinguiſhed period in African geography.

But that of the interior was deſtined to remain in obſcurity, though, early in the ſixteenth century, Leo gave an ample deſcription of the northern parts; and Alvarez who viſited Abyſſinia in 1520, publiſhed a minute account of that country;* which was further illuſtrated by

* One of the beſt tranſlations of Leo is that in Engliſh by Pory, at the requeſt of Hakluyt, with a map and additions prefixed, containing all the knowledge acquired at that time: London, 1600, folio. The work of Alvarez was tranſlated from Portugueſe into Spaniſh. Antwerp, 1557, 12mo, pp. 414.

In 1588 Livio Sanuto publiſhed a geography of Africa in folio at Venice; and in 1670 Dapper gave another at Amſterdam, which was copied in Ogilby's folio, London, 1671. Marmol's noted work was written in Spaniſh, and the firſt volume appeared at Granada 1573, folio. But Leo remained the chief original authority. The Congo of Lopez was publiſhed at Rome 1591, 4to: and a Latin tranſlation 1598. The Decads of Barros began to appear 1560.

thoſe

those of Lobo and Tellez. The Portuguese established several factories and settlements in the west, in order to secure the trade in gold and ivory: and the additional title of king of Guinea had been assumed by the Portuguese monarchs. The accounts of the missionaries gradually enlarged the knowledge of African geography. Yet from peculiar circumstances that knowledge continues extremely limited: the vast sandy deserts; high mountains; impenetrable forests; the unintermitting wars of the petty tribes, more spirited and ferocious than those of America, and unawed by European troops, or conquests; and particularly the antipathy of the African mahometans, many of them expelled from Spain, and retaining hereditary rancour against the Franks; have presented obstacles almost unconquerable. Recently Browne has disclosed the small kingdom of Fur or Darfur, and some circumjacent territories; and particularly the river of Bahr Kulla, which seems, as already mentioned, to be the Gir of Ptolemy. The travels of Park establish with certainty that the Nigir flows to the east, as long before delineated in the maps of D'Anville, Gendron, and others; and shew that its western sources are nearer the shore than had been imagined. The endeavours of the African Society at London, to promote the geography of this continent, deserve the greatest applause, and their publications are valuable records of the science. It is to be hoped that Mr. Hornemann, who has the advantage of profiting by the advice and even disappointments of his predecessors, and seems to have in consequence adopted the necessary concealment and precautions, will at least succeed in detecting the termination of the Gir and Nigir, and in visiting the neighbouring cities, particularly Tombuctoo; for those mentioned by Edrisi may be long ago in ruins. Progressive Geography.

The ruling religion of this continent is the Mahometan, which has unfortunately penetrated further in the interior, than was at first conceived; and, as already mentioned, has presented a great obstacle to such travellers as, being unaware of this circumstance, have neglected the disguise and similation, indispensable amidst such a fanatic and intolerant race. The climate which in the north is intensely hot, is rather more moderate in the southern extremity, the antarctic cold being Religion. Climate.

Climate. more powerful than that of the other pole. In the centre it would appear that there is a prodigious ridge of mountains, extending from thoſe of Kong in the weſt to thoſe of Kumri or of the moon, and thoſe of Abyſſinia in the eaſt; the whole range being about N. lat. 10°. And from this another chain ſeems to extend, about long. 30° eaſt from Greenwich, in a ſouthern direction. Theſe ranges of mountains may probably be found to preſent a climate not expected in the torrid zone, and as adverſe to the ancient belief, as that of South America in which the chief features are the Maranon, and exceſs of moiſture: and mountains clothed with perpetual ſnow.

Inland Seas. In Africa the want of inland ſeas is not ſupplied, as in South America, by large navigable rivers; and the ſingular deficiency of both may be regarded as a radical cauſe of the ſtriking want of civilization, and ſlow progreſs of African geography. For inland ſeas, or navigable rivers, would have naturally invited commercial intercourſe, and foreign ſettlements, on a far larger ſcale than the ſmall factories near the coaſt; and the more ſouthern parts might thus have rivalled the ancient fame of thoſe on the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. But theſe grand inlets are rather boundaries of Africa: and there are no navigable waters which can diffuſe commerce and induſtry from the ſhore to the centre.

Lakes. It is probable that conſiderable lakes may be diſcovered near the interior ranges of mountains; at preſent that of Maravi, S. lat. 10°, is alone of ſuch magnitude as to require notice in a general deſcription; and even of this there is no certain nor preciſe knowledge.

Rivers. Nile. The chief river hitherto diſcovered is the Nile, which riſes in the Gebel el Kumr, or mountains of the moon, in a diſtrict called Donga, N. lat. 8°. It is firſt known by the name of Bahr el Abiad, or the White River; and about lat. 16° is joined by the Bahr el Azrek, or the Blue River; the former tinged, the latter clear; circumſtances which occur in the Maranon, and the Miſſouri, in which the chief ſtream is muddy. The Bahr el Azrek, or Blue River, was miſtaken for the real Nile by the Portugueſe writers, Alvarez, Tellez, &c. probably miſled by the vain glory of the Abyſſinians; though it was well known to the ancients as quite a diſtinct river, the Aſtapus, flowing into the Nile

from the Coloe Palus, now the lake of Dembea.* The comparative courſe of the Nile may be eſtimated at about 2000 B. miles, thus nearly rivalling the longeſt Aſiatic rivers: and it is at any rate only ſuppoſed to be exceeded by the Ob, Kian Ku, and Hoan Ho; as it is by the Maranon, and probably by the Miſſouri. The Nile forms ſome conſiderable cataracts, the chief being that of Geanadil in Nubia, before it gain the level of Egypt, after paſſing ſome rapids to the S. of Syene. Its other features are intimately connected with the account of Egypt. The other chief rivers are the Nigir, and the Gir, already mentioned, the courſe of each being probably about 1000 B. miles. That of Senegal is alſo conſiderable. In the ſouthern parts the Zahiror Barbela of Congo, and the Zambezi of Mocaranga, are the moſt conſiderable yet known. It is not however wholly improbable that there may be ſome great rivers, deſcending from the central ridges of mountains, though their eſtuaries be ſo impeded by ſandbanks, or divided by deltas, as to have eſcaped the notice of mariners. Rivers.

The mountains of Atlas attracted the particular obſervation of the ancients, who fabled that they ſupported the firmament; and derived from them the celebrated appellations of the Atlantic ocean and the Atlantic iſlands. When D'Anville ſuppoſes that the greater Atlas of Ptolemy is Cape Bojador, he evinces that he himſelf erred by extending the ancient knowledge too far to the ſouth. Views of the head lands and mountains viſible from the ſea would again be requiſite for this diſcuſſion; but in no map is the Atlas repreſented as extending ſo far to the ſouth; and the greater Atlas would rather ſeem to be Cape Geer, Mountains. Atlas.

* Mr. Bruce's vanity led him to adopt the ſame miſtake: and it is ſaid that after converſing with D'Anville at Paris, who ſhewed him the groſs ignorance of his pretenſions, our traveller, who has great merit in other reſpects, wiſely reſolved to ſtrike out the White River from his map, though he acknowledge in his work that it is the largeſt ſtream! Goſſellin, Recherches, ii. 120. pronounces Bruce the moſt credulous and enthuſiaſtic of mankind; but, with greater juſtice, adds, that he has only repeated the diſcoveries which the jeſuits had made a century and a half before. Yet Goſſellin's Ophir, which he finds in the obſcure village of Doffir in Yemen, is a moſt ridiculous poſition. He forgets that the Phenicians, who directed the fleets of Solomon, had probably explored Britain before that period. It ſeems highly probable that Ophir was on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa: and perhaps Ophir was the original Phenician term for that continent. Equally ridiculous is Goſſellin's idea, ii. 67, that *Sera*, the capital of the Seres, was Serinagar on the Ganges!

where

Mountains. where the chain probably terminates, or thence extends in the ſame direction, as not unuſual, till it conſtitute the iſles called the Canaries. Ptolemy's delineation of the Atlas is ſingularly broken and indiſtinct. In ſome modern accounts this ridge is conſidered as dividing the kingdom of Algier from Zeb and Bilidulgerid, that is, the direction is S. W. and N. E. which ſeems alſo confirmed by Dr. Shaw, though he acknowledge conſiderable difficulties.[5] So far as the materials will admit, the Atlas may be conſidered as extending from Cape Geer in a N. E. direction, and giving ſource to many rivers flowing N. and S. till it expire in the kingdom of Tunis. This main ridge may perhaps, in ſome places, preſent a double chain, and in others diverge in branches. From the accounts of ſome French mineralogiſts, who have viſited the weſtern extremity, the ſtructure is granitic and primitive.

Others. Further to the eaſt the ranges of mountains or rather hills, in what is called the Country of Dates, cannot be conſidered as portions of the Atlantic range. Along the weſtern ſhores of the Arabian Gulf extends a celebrated ridge of red granite, which ſupplied the famous obeliſks of Egypt; and of which one mountain was ſtyled that of emeralds from the quarries of that gem: in the ſame vicinity were the quarries of the celebrated marble called *Verde Antico*, recently obſerved by Bruce and

[5] Travels, 1738, folio, p. 18, &c.

Strabo, lib. 17. mentions the Atlas as called *Dyris* by the natives, and only deſcribes it as being beyond the Pillars of Hercules, on turning to the left or ſouth; the ancients indeed ſeeming to regard it as one high mountain, not as a ridge. Mela, lib. i. cap. 4. mentions the Atlantae as the furtheſt people on the weſt. Pliny, as uſual, is the moſt learned, lib. v. cap. 1. He alſo deſcribes Atlas as a detached mountain, riſing from the ſands to a great height, on the ſhores of the ocean to which it gave its name; yet towards the end of the chapter he deſcribes it as a range paſſed by Suetonius Paulinus on his progreſs to the Nigir. It is to be regretted that Pliny's geography, perhaps the moſt intereſting of all antiquity, has not been tranſlated and illuſtrated, as it has been in a ſingular manner neglected by D'Anville, and moſt other enquirers into ancient geography, who ſeem only to recur to geographers ſtrictly ſo called.

From Mr. Lempriere's journey in Morocco the range of the Atlas ſeems clearly aſcertained, the town of Santa Cruz ſtanding near its furtheſt extremity; while Tarudant, to which he paſſed through an open plain, is, by his account, on the S. of the Atlas. Thence Cape Geer is the clear termination, or the great Atlas of Ptolemy, while the ſmaller Atlas is a branch extending towards Saffi, Lempriere, p. 75, or Cape Cantin: and another branch now called the Leſſer Atlas reaches to Tangier. The Arabian geographers extend the Atlas (Daran) through Tripoli, but this opinion is contradicted by modern obſervation, and even by the maps of Ptolemy.

Browne. The high mountains of Abyſſinia ſeem to branch from the great central chain already mentioned, or rather from its junction with that on the weſt of the Red Sea; but the natural hiſtory remains unknown. The conjectural ridge proceeding ſouth is ſuppoſed to terminate about lat. 25°, as the high mountains on the north of the European colony of the Cape paſs E. and W. and the Orange River riſing from their northern baſe is ſuppoſed to follow a N. W. and W. direction. The mountains of the Cape ſeem chiefly of blue ſchiſtus, ſiliceous ſandſtone, and granular quartz, interſperſed with large maſſes of granite, which are often found hollow, as if they had contained ſome ſofter ſubſtance. Mountains.

But the moſt ſtriking feature of Africa conſiſts in the immenſe deſerts, which pervade many parts of that continent; and may perhaps be found to compriſe one half of its whole extent. Of theſe the chief is that called *Zaara*, or *the Deſert*, by eminence, ſtretching from the ſhores of the Atlantic, with few interruptions, to the confines of Egypt, a ſpace of more than forty-five degrees, or about 2500 g. miles, by a breadth of twelve degrees or 720 g. miles. This prodigious expanſe of red ſand, and ſandſtone rock, preſents, as it were, the ruins of a continent; and perhaps gave riſe to the fable of Atlantis, a region at firſt conceived to be ſeated in the ſands on the weſt of Egypt; and afterwards, like other fables, paſſing gradually further before the light of diſcovery. This empire of ſand defies every exertion of human power or induſtry; but it is interſperſed with various iſlands of different ſizes, of which Fezzan is the chief which has yet been explored. A recent traveller in Morocco ſays that caravans frequently paſs from Tafilet to Tombut or Tombuctoo, by the country of the Mohafres and Thouat.[6] "The city of Thouat is in the interior parts of the country, about thirty days journey from Tafilet. From Thouat the caravans proceed directly to Tombut. There is much greater danger in paſſing the two deſerts between Tafilet and Thouat, than between the latter place and Tombut." Thouat ſeems to be the Toudeny of ſome recent maps; and the vaſt deſert inſtead of being more juſtly conſidered in the aggregate, is divided into Deſerts. Zaara.

[6] Lempriere, 343, 344.

portions

Deserts. portions of diſtinct appellations, as the travellers happen to meet with iſlands, ſaline pools, or other circumſtances.

In the ſouthern parts of Africa, towards the European ſettlements, there are alſo deſerts of great extent; but it ſeems probable that the central ridges of mountains, already indicated, preſerve vegetation where they extend; and it is underſtood that the Portugueſe have been prevented from paſſing from Congo to Zanguebar by ranges of mountains full of the moſt ferocious animals, and impeded by that thick thorny underwood which is peculiar to African foreſts. Yet there is probably, as in Aſia, a wide deſert table-land between the E. and W. ranges, pervaded by the Giagas or Jagas, who ſeem to be the Tatars of ſouthern Africa; and who are ſaid ſometimes to have roamed from Mozambic to the vicinity of the Cape of Good Hope.

Arrangement. In arranging the following brief deſcription of Africa, the firſt account ſhall be that of Abyſſinia, the chief native power, ſo far as hitherto diſcovered. Thence by Egypt, in a geographical progreſſion, the route ſhall embrace the Mahometan States in the north, the Weſtern Coaſt, and the Cape of Good Hope. The progreſs ſhall then be continued along the Eaſtern Shores: nor muſt the noble iſland of Madagaſcar be forgotten. The Smaller Iſlands which muſt be arranged with Africa are, Bourbon, Mauritius, &c.; nor can Kerguelen's Land be properly allotted to any other diviſion of the globe. The geographical voyage then bends to the N. W. by St. Helena, the iſlands of Cape Verd, the Canaries, and Madeira. The whole deſcription ſhall be cloſed with a ſummary of the diſcoveries, and conjectures, concerning the central parts of this great continent.

ABYSSINIA.

Extent.— Original Population.—Progreſſive Geography.—Religion.—Government. Population.—Army.—Revenues.—Manners and Cuſtoms.—Language.—Cities.— Manufactures and Commerce.—Climate and Seaſons.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.— Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Natural Curioſities.

Extent.

THIS kingdom, which exceeds in antiquity and ſtability any of the African ſtates, extends about eleven degrees in length, from north to ſouth, that is, about 660 geographic or 770 B. miles. The medial breadth is about eight degrees of longitude, in lat. 10°, or 572 g. miles, about 550 Britiſh. On the eaſt the chief boundary is the Red Sea: and it is divided from the kingdom of Adel by an ideal line: on the ſouth, mountains and deſerts ſeem to part it from Gingiro and Alaba, while on the weſt and north, mountains and foreſts conſtitute the barriers towards Kordofan and Sennaar. It is divided into provinces, of which Tigri is remarkable for the tranſit of commerce to the Arabian gulf; Gojam for the ſources of the Aſtapus or fabled Nile of the Abyſſinians; and Dembea for a noted lake, and Gondar the capital of the monarchy.

Original Population.

It ſeems ſufficiently eſtabliſhed, that Abyſſinia was peopled, at a very early period, by a colony from the oppoſite ſhores of Arabia; and the people ſtill retain Arabian features, though their complexions be darker than thoſe of their progenitors; but they have neither the ſingular conſtruction of the negro ſkull, nor other peculiarities of that

Original Population.

race.* In the year 333 the Abyſſinians were converted to chriſtianity, their general tenets being thoſe of the Greek church, received from the patriarch of Alexandria; but they ſtill retain the African circumciſion, a native and aboriginal rite wholly unconnected with religion. As the Arabs impute every thing marvellous to Solomon, ſo theſe their deſcendants, and in frequent habits of intercourſe, have adopted the ſame ideas, which are ſtrengthened by religious fable and tradition. Hence the Abyſſinian kings claim a deſcent from that monarch, in the ſame mode of reaſoning as the Arabs deduce the noble genealogy of their ſteeds from the ſtalls of Solomon. The Queen of Sheba, or Saba, in Arabia Felix, has alſo been transferred to the other ſide of the gulf. Some credulous travellers have fondly adopted theſe idle tales; though they allow that the Abyſſinian annals are dubious, broken, and obſcure; and the natives had not even the uſe of letters till they were converted to chriſtianity. From more certain ſources it may be traced that the Axumites or Abyſſinians were conſiderably civilized in the ſixth century, and carried on ſome trade with Ceylon.[1] In the ſame century the Neguz, or king, of Abyſſinia conquered the Arabian monarchy of the Homorites in Yemen; and a Roman ambaſſador appeared in the royal city of Axumé, which exiſted in the time of Alvarez; but the territory could not be very extenſive, as there were only ſeven biſhops, ſubject to the patriarch of Alexandria.

Progreſſive Geography.

The progreſſive geography of this country may be traced with tolerable accuracy, from the time of Ptolemy, who deſcribes its chief features, the two large rivers called Aſtapus and Aſtaboras, now the Bahr el Azrek and the Tacuzzi or Atbara, and the lake Coloe or Dembea, with the royal city of Axumé, now a village called Axum. The Arabian geographers ſupply the interval between ancient and modern knowledge.

* Volney has with ſufficient precipitation pronounced, that the ancient Egyptians were negroes, though he had only to look at their deſcendants the Copts, at any of their ancient gems, or other repreſentations, or even at the mummies themſelves, to perceive his error. But Volney was labouring for the emancipation of the negroes; and that ſpecies of reaſoning ignorance, which is too often called philoſophy, is itſelf over-run with the moſt ſingular prejudices.

[1] Gibbon, vii. 342.

The

The religion, as already mentioned, is the chriſtian with ſome peculiar forms and practices, too minute to be here detailed. The government is abſolute and hereditary, but with a kind of election in the royal family; and the king is ſaluted with proſtration. A ſtriking and romantic ſingularity was that the princes were educated on a lofty and ſolitary mountain, a practice long ſince abandoned. Concerning the population of this country there ſeems no authentic evidence. Alvarez pronounces it one of the moſt populous regions in the world; but this ſeems one of the uſual Spaniſh and Portugueſe exaggerations. By Bruce's account it is extremely difficult to raiſe the royal army above thirty thouſand: yet in ſo barbarous a ſtate it might be concluded that every tenth perſon joins the army. But ſo thin a population is incredible, and it ſeems probable that it may amount to two or three millions. The royal revenues conſiſt of the rude products of the various provinces, the uſe of money being unknown, though gold be found in the ſand of the rivers. One of the chief articles is cattle, which are numerous, and ſold at a low price.

Religion. Government. Population. Army. Revenues.

The natives are of a dark olive complexion; and the dreſs a light robe, bound with a ſaſh, the head being covered with a kind of turban.[2] The houſes are of a conic form, meanly built of clay, and covered with thatch; and even the churches are of a round form, encircled with a portico. Chriſtianity ſeems to hold but a ſlight influence over the manners and morals, and the prieſts are little reſpected. Engaged in the conſtant ſuppreſſion of inſurrections or in petty warfare with the ſurrounding ſtates, particularly the Galas, who ſeem a tribe of the Jagas, the government of Abyſſinia pays little attention to the progreſs of induſtry and civilization. After fifteen centuries of chriſtianity, this country recals the image of the barbarous ſtates of Europe in the ſeventh or eighth centuries. To ſome nations, particularly the negroes and the ſavages of America, cruelty ſeems ſo familiar, and ſympathy or compaſſion ſo utterly unknown, that the ſufferings of another are not only unfelt, but viewed with an unaccountable kind of delight. Were it not for this unpleaſant truth, the reports of ſome

Manners and Cuſtoms.

[2] Poncet in Lockman, i. 230, &c. From a juſt enmity againſt the ſanguinary and fanatical Portugueſe miſſionaries, they deteſt the reſemblance of a white complexion, and even ſhew an averſion to white grapes. Ib. 241.

Manners and Customs.

travellers would ſcarcely be credible, when they aſſure us that, at an Abyſſinian banquet, the fleſh is cut from the live oxen. Others however only affirm that the natives are fond of raw fleſh, a taſte not unknown to the people of Tibet, and other countries. Even religion ſometimes bends before the influence of climate, and polygamy is not unknown among theſe chriſtians; the kings in particular having frequently many wives and concubines. By a ſingular cuſtom the wife is puniſhed if the huſband prove falſe. The only meal is commonly in the evening, and the abſtinence of Lent is carefully preſerved; nay, according to Alvarez the clergy and monks only eat three times a week. The common beverages are mead and a kind of beer.[3] The neguz or king, for the title of emperor is ridiculous, is conſidered as the ſole proprietor of the land, while private property is reſtricted to moveable goods.

Language.

The language is regarded as an ancient offſpring of the Arabic, and is divided into various dialects, among which the chief are the Tigrin or that of the province of Tigri, and the Amharic. The Galanic is alſo widely diffuſed, the Galas being a numerous adjacent people, who frequently diſturb the public tranquillity. The Abyſſinian language is illuſtrated by the labours of Ludolf, and ſeveral miſſionaries; and is probably nearly allied to the Coptic, the Egyptians paſſing from the north of ancient Arabia, and the Abyſſinians from the ſouth.

Cities.

The chief city in modern times is Gondar, ſituated upon a hill. According to Bruce it contains ten thouſand families, that is about fifty thouſand ſouls; but in the time of Alvarez none of the cities was ſuppoſed to exceed fifteen hundred houſes. The palace, or rather houſe of the neguz, is at the weſt end, flanked with ſquare towers, from the ſummit of which was a view of the ſouthern country, as far as the lake of Tzana or Dembea. Axum, the ancient capital, is ſtill known by extenſive ruins, among which are many obeliſks of granite, but without hieroglyphics. The other towns are few and unimportant. On the rock of Geſhen, in the province of Amhara, were formerly confined the Abyſſinian princes: and Abyſſinia in general is remarkable for detached

[3] Alvarez, fol. 200. Lobo, p. 54.

pre-

precipitous rocks, appearing at a diſtance like caſtles and towns, a feature alſo uſual in New Granada, and other north-eaſtern parts of South America. The rock of Ambazel, in the ſame province, has alſo been dedicated to the ſame political purpoſe, both being near a ſmall river which flows into the Bahr el Azrek. The manufactures and commerce are of ſmall conſequence, the latter being chiefly confined to Maſua on the Red Sea. The earthen ware is decent; but though Coſmo de Medici, among other artiſans, ſent manufacturers of glaſs to the neguz, the Abyſſinians ſtill ſeem ſtrangers to this, and many other common fabrics. Cities. Manufactures and Commerce.

The climate is attempered by the mountainous nature of the country. From April to September there are heavy rains; and in the dry ſeaſon of the ſix ſucceeding months the nights are cold. Alvarez has long ago remarked that the riſe of the Nile in Egypt is occaſioned by the violent rains, which, during the ſummer, deluge the ſouthern regions; and he might perhaps have added the melting of the ſnows in the African alps, which give ſource to the real Nile the Bahr el Abiad; for as the Atlas is covered with perpetual ſnow, which alſo crowns the Andes under the equator, it is probable that the central ridge of Africa preſents the ſame features, and that an ancient geographer might have been frozen to death in his torrid zone. Abyſſinia is one of the moſt mountainous and precipitous countries in the world; but in a few vales the ſoil is black and fertile. The chief river is the Bahr el Azrek, or Abyſſinian Nile, which has a ſpiral origin like the Orinoco. The ſources were, in the ſeventeenth century, accurately deſcribed by Payz, a Portugueſe miſſionary, whoſe account was publiſhed by Kircher and Iſaac Voſſius, and has in our times been very minutely copied by Bruce, as Hartman has explained by printing the two accounts in parallel columns. The chief ſpring of the Bahr el Azrek is in a ſmall hillock, ſituated in a marſh. The ſources of the real Nile or Bahr el Abiad, in the alps of Kumri, remain to be explored. Receiving no auxiliary ſtreams on its long progreſs through Egypt, the Nile is ſingularly narrow, and ſhallow, when compared with other rivers of far ſhorter courſe. The Bahr el Azrek is ſtyled by the Abyſſinians Abawi, a name of uncertain origin; and is followed by the Tacuz or Tacuzzi the Aſtaboras of the ancients, Climate and Seaſons. Rivers.

Rivers. as the Abawi is the Aſtapus.* Another conſiderable ſtream, is the Maleg, which joins the Abawi after a parallel courſe on the weſt: this river Bruce has vainly endeavoured to confound with the Bahr el Abiad or White River; which, as he might have learned from the map of D'Anville 1749, is 300 miles to the weſt of the Maleg; and receives the Abawi at about the ſame diſtance from its junction with the former river. Several tributary ſtreams join the Abawi and the Tacuz. Two other rivers, the Hanazo and the Hawaſh, flow in an oppoſite direction, towards the entrance of the Red Sea, but the firſt is ſaid to be loſt in the ſands of Adel.

Lakes. The chief lake is that of Tzana, alſo called Dembea, from a circumjacent province. This lake is pervaded by the Nile in its circular progreſs, as the lake of Parima by the Orinoco, being about 60 B. miles in length by half that breadth: but the extent differs greatly in the dry and wet ſeaſons. Among other iſlands there is one in the midſt called Tzana, which is ſaid to have given name to the lake. In the ſouthern extremity of the kingdom is the lake of Zawaja, a chief ſource of the Hawaſh; and among many ſmaller expanſes of water may be named the lake of Haik, near they royal rocks of Geſhen and Ambazel.

Mountains. The mountains of Abyſſinia ſeem irregularly grouped, being at the junction of that chain which borders the weſtern ſhores of the Red Sea, and of that far ſuperior ridge which pervades central Africa from eaſt to weſt in a N. W. and S. E. direction, giving ſource to the Nigir and the river of Senegal at one extremity, and at the other to the Gir and Nile. Hence on the eaſt ſide of Abyſſinia the ridges probably paſs N. and S. and in the ſouthern part W. and E. As in other high ranges of mountains, there are three ranks, the chief elevations being in the middle. On the eaſt of the kingdom are the heights of Taranta; and towards the centre the Lamalmon: while in the ſouth is the Ganza. Tellez idly aſſerts that the Abyſſinian mountains are higher than the Alps or Pyrenees: he adds that the loftieſt are thoſe of Amhara and Samena, that is towards the centre of the kingdom, whence rivers flow

* The Abawi preſents a remarkable cataract at a place called Alata, not far from its egreſs out of the lake of Tzana. The grand cataract of the Nile is in Nubia, lat. 22°.

in all directions. The precipices are tremendous and truly alpine. Abyſſinia preſents a rich field of natural hiſtory. Mountains.

The few ſcanty fragments of Abyſſinian botany contained in the works of Ludolph, Lobo, and Bruce, are unfortunately our only materials for the flora of eaſtern Africa; nor can theſe be wholly depended upon, as two of the above authors wrote before the exiſtence of ſcientific botany, and the third, beſides his ignorance on this ſubject, ſeems too much diſpoſed to aggrandiſe his brief catalogue by repreſenting common plants as rare and even new ſpecies. Botany.

The ſycamore fig, the erythrina corallodendron, the tamarind, the date, the coffee, a large tree uſed in boat-building, called by Bruce rack, and two ſpecies of mimoſa or acacia, though probably not the principal trees, are almoſt the only ones that have hitherto been deſcribed. The arboreſcent euphorbiæ are found on ſome of the dry mountains. A ſhrub called, in the language of the country, woo-ginoos, (the brucea antidyſenterica of Bruce and Gmelin), is celebrated by the Britiſh traveller for its medicinal virtues in the diſeaſe of which it bears the name, and the cuſſo or bankſia of Bruce, which ſeems to be a ſpecies of rhus, is mentioned by the ſame author as a powerful anthelmintic. A large eſculent herbaceous plant analogous to the banana, called by Bruce enſete, is largely cultivated by the natives as a ſubſtitute for bread. The cyperus papyrus is found here in ſhallow plaſhes as in Egypt; and the trees that yield the balſam of Gilead, and the myrrh, are repreſented by the above-mentioned traveller as natives of Abyſſinia.

The horſes are ſmall but ſpirited, as uſual in alpine countries. Cattle and buffaloes are numerous. Among wild animals are the elephant, rhinoceros, lion, panther; and it is ſaid the giraff or camelopardalis. The hyena is alſo frequent, and ſingularly bold and ferocious, ſo as even to haunt the ſtreets of the capital in the night. The extirpation of theſe animals may be impoſſible in ſo mountainous a country, but the circumſtance indicates a miſerable defect of policy. There are alſo wild boars, gazels or antelopes, and numerous tribes of monkies, among which is the guereza delineated by Ludolf. The hippopotamus and crocodile ſwarm in Zoology.

the

Zoology. the lakes and rivers. Equally numerous are the kinds of birds, among which is the golden eagle of great ſize, but water fowl ar erare. The moſt remarkable inſect is a large fly, from whoſe ſting even the lion flies with trepidation. The mineralogy of this alpine country muſt be intereſting, but it is neglected by the ignorant natives. Gold is found in the ſand of the rivers, and in one or two provinces is obſerved on digging up trees. There are ſome ſlight mines in the provinces of Narea and Damut. Foſſil ſalt is found on the confines of Tigri. It is ſaid that there are no gems, and that even the royal diadem is decorated with imitations: ſome aſſert that the Abyſſinians neglect to ſearch for gold or gems, leſt the Turks ſhould be inſtigated by the reported wealth to invade the country. The chief natural curioſities are the alpine ſcenes, the precipitous detached rocks, the cataract of Alata, and the river Mareb in the N. E., which is ſaid completely to ſink under ground.

Mineralogy.

Natural Curioſities.

rowsmith direxit

From D'Anville

Published March 1st 1802, by Cadell and Davies, Strand, and Longman and Rees, Paternoster Row

EGYPT.

Extent.—Original Population.—Progreſſive Geography.—Religion.—Government.—Population.—Revenues.—Manners and Cuſtoms.—Language.—Cities.—Climate.—Face of the Country.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.

THIS country, celebrated from the earlieſt ages of antiquity, and recently a diſtinguiſhed ſcene of Britiſh valour, both by ſea and land, is about 500 miles in length from north to ſouth; and, including the greater and leſſer Oaſis, about half that breadth. But this appearance is merely nominal; Egypt being in fact a narrow vale on both ſides of the river Nile, bounded by parallel ridges of mountains or hills. It ſeems to have been originally peopled from the northern parts of Arabia, or from Syria; the Egyptians and Abyſſinians having been in all ages wholly diſtinct from the native nations of Africa. A late intelligent traveller remarks[1] that the Copts, or original inhabitants have no reſemblance of the negro features or form. The eyes are dark, and the hair often curled, but not in a greater degree than is occaſionally ſeen among Europeans. "The noſe is often aquiline, and though the lips be ſometimes thick, by no means generally ſo; and on the whole a ſtrong reſemblance may be traced between the form of viſage in the modern Copts, and that preſented in the ancient mummies, paintings, and ſtatues. Their complexion, like that of the Arabs, is of a duſky brown; it is repreſented of the ſame colour in the paintings which I have ſeen in the tombs of Thebes." Volney had only to

EXTENT.

Original Population.

[1] Browne, p. 71.

Original Population. inſpect a mummy, or a Copt, in order to confute his hypotheſis that the Egyptians were negroes; but prejudice is worſe than blindneſs; and the prejudices of ignorant philoſophy are equal to thoſe of any other fanaticiſm. The progreſſive geography and hiſtory of Egypt are familiar to moſt readers: and the chief antiquities have been ſo repeatedly deſcribed, that, when no new light can be thrown, the repetition would be alike tedious and unneceſſary. The chief ſcenes of antiquity are the pyramids; and the tombs near Thebes, once obſtructed and recently diſcloſed; with many ruins of temples, and other remains of ancient cities. At Achmunein there are curious ancient paintings, the colours being remarkably freſh.*

Progreſſive Geography.

Religion. The ruling religion in Egypt is the Mahometan; but there are many Chriſtian Copts who have their prieſts and monaſteries. The government is at preſent unſettled, but will probaby be abandoned to a Turkiſh Paſha; the ariſtocracy of the Beys and Mamluks being, in every appearance, eradicated by the French invaſion. Mr. Browne eſtimates the population of Egypt at two millions and a half; of whom the city of Cairo may contain 300,000.[2] The revenue under the Beys might perhaps be about one million ſterling.

Government.

Population.

Revenues.

Manners and Cuſtoms. A general ſimilarity pervades the manners of Mahometan countries, as the Koran regulates moſt ſprings of human life: the fanaticiſm againſt the Franks or Europeans was extreme, but may perhaps be ſomewhat moderated by the recent terror of their arms. The Copts are an ingenious people, and have great ſkill in buſineſs; whence they are generally employed by the Mahometans as writers and accomptants. The Mamluks being extinct, the other chief claſs conſiſts of Arabs or Mahometan deſcendants of theſe ancient conquerors. The heat of the climate enforces an abſtemious diet: and the houſes even at Cairo are moſtly miſerable dirty hovels. The common people are alſo diſguſtingly filthy in their perſons; and the care which the women employ to cover their faces is truly ludicrous, as in general to diſcloſe them would be the moſt

* Dr. White in his Egyptiaca, 1801, 4to, inclines to think that the noted column aſcribed to Pompey, ornamented a ſpace oppoſite to the Serapium or temple of Serapis, in which was the great public library; and eſcaped ancient notice by its connection with that grand edifice.

[2] P. 71.

effectual

effectual bar to temptation. But in the classes somewhat more at ease the Coptic women have interesting features, large black eyes; and, though of short stature, have often elegant shapes. The Coptic language is now only known in manuscripts, the Arabic being universally used. Manners and Customs. Language.

The chief city is Cairo, or in the oriental enunciation Kahira, which may indeed be regarded as the metropolis of Africa, as no city throughout this wide continent can perhaps boast a sixth part of its population. This celebrated metropolis is on the east side of the Nile, at some distance; but two suburbs connect it with the river. On the east is a ridge of that extensive chain, embanking the Nile as far as Upper Egypt. On the north a plain extends to the delta which it resembles in soil and productions. The population, as already mentioned, is estimated at 300,000; but the streets are narrow in order to guard against the sun; and there is an interior wide canal styled the Chalige, the stench of which is occasionally intolerable, though the chief street pass along its shore. The principal mosk is ornamented with pillars of marble, and Persian carpets, and has a library of manuscripts; great property being attached to the foundation. There are many reservoirs for water, public baths, and bazars or markets, where each trade has its allotted quarter. The houses are mostly of sand-stone from the mountain behind; and are sometimes three stories high with flat roofs. The harams, or apartments of the women, are expensively furnished; but those of the men neat and plain. Before the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope the commerce was immense; and Cairo is still the centre of that of eastern Africa, as Tripoli is of the western. From Yemen are imported coffee, drugs, odours, and some gems; muslin, cotton, spices from Hindostan: and the caravans from Sennaar and Fur bring slaves, gold dust, ivory, horns of the rhinoceros, ostrich feathers, gums, and drugs. From Tunis and Tripoli are brought oil, red caps, and fine flannel: from Syria cotton, silk, soap, tobacco: from Constantinople white slaves, Circassians or Georgians, the males being the noted Mamluks, with all kinds of brass, copper, and iron manufactures. Numerous negro slaves pass from Cairo to the more northern Mahometan countries. Among the manufactures are sugar, sal ammoniac, glass lamps, salt- Cities. Cairo.

Cities. petre, gunpowder, red and yellow leather, and particularly linen made of the fine Egyptian flax. To the N. E. of the city are gardens and villas of the great; but the mountain is of white calcareous ſand-ſtone, and deſtitute of verdure. On Friday a moſk without the walls is frequented by the ladies as a pilgrimage of pleaſure. There are light boats, like Venetian gondolas, uſed on the increaſe of the Nile: and among the amuſements are dancing girls, and rope dancers; the chief games being cheſs, and Poliſh drafts. On ſolemn occaſions fireworks are exhibited.

Next in conſequence are Alexandria, Roſetta or Raſchid, and Damiata. Upper Egypt no longer boaſts of a Thebes; and even Girgi, formerly the capital of this part, begins to decline.

Commerce. Egypt is no longer the centre of oriental trade, nor the granary of Rome, yet the delta ſtill exports great quantities of rice; and Upper Egypt ſupplies ſome cargoes of wheat. Flax is ſent to Syria, and coffee, and black ſlaves, to Conſtantinople. Other articles of commerce are already enumerated in the deſcription of Cairo. Alexandria was the chief ſeat of European trade, which thence paſſed by Raſchid to Cairo. Particular exports were ſaffranon and ſenna; and about eight hundred bales of European broad cloth were imported. The trade of Damiata is of ſmall conſequence.

Climate. The climate of Egypt is well known to be peculiar, rain being a moſt uncommon phenomenon. The heat is alſo extreme, particularly from March to November; while the cool ſeaſon or a kind of ſpring extends through the other months.[3] Yet the chief malady ſeems to be a weakneſs of the eyes, and blindneſs is very common in Egypt. Some ſuppoſe that this proceeds from the extreme heat and want of rain, ſo that the air is continually impregnated with very fine duſt; and the ſoil abounding in nitre, the effect is the more acrimonious. The habit of ſleeping in the open air, upon the terraces, expoſed to the nocturnal dews, may however be regarded as the chief cauſe; and when the diſeaſe appears it is increaſed by the ſplendour of the ſun, reflected from the white houſes, and the pale ſand of the deſerts. The plantation of trees and ſhrubs, wherever it can be effected; and the univerſal intro-

[3] Volney, i. 67.

duction

duction of green paint, would in ſome meaſure obviate this calamity, which appears to have been unknown to the ancient inhabitants: but the chief precaution would ſeem to be an edict againſt ſleeping in the open air; and the uſe of ſuch covers as the Laplanders wear againſt the glare of the ſnow might alſo be ſalutary. The peſtilence has been erroneouſly ſuppoſed to originate from Ethiopia, where it is quite unknown; and in Egypt it is ſuppoſed to be always imported from Conſtantinople. The extreme heat ſtops it here, as effectually as the cold in other countries. Climate.

The general face of the country varies in particular regions, but is otherwiſe rather flat and uniform. Alexandria is inſulated in the deſert, while the delta preſents a luxuriant vegetation, and inundated meadows. The conſtant repetition of the palm and the date tree becomes tedious; but around Raſchid the orange groves preſent an agreeable variety. Of far the greater part of Egypt the aſpect is that of a narrow fertile vale, pervaded by the Nile, and bounded on either ſide by barren rocks and mountains. The towns, and cultivation, are chiefly on the eaſtern bank; behind which are vaſt ranges of mountains extending to the Arabian gulf, abounding with marble and porphyry, but almoſt deſtitute of water, and only inhabited by Bedouins. Acroſs theſe mountains is a ſolitary road to Coſſeir on the Red Sea. On the weſt the hills lead to a vaſt ſandy deſert, where are the two Oaſes, a name applied to iſlands ſituated in ſand. The appearance of Egypt, under the inundation of the Nile, has been deſcribed rather poetically than hiſtorically, the picture only applying to parts of the delta; while in other diſtricts there are ſome canals, but the lands are generally watered by machines. According to a late traveller "the ſoil in general is ſo rich as to require no manure. It is a pure black mould, free from ſtones, and of a very tenacious and unctuous nature. When left uncultivated I have obſerved fiſſures, ariſing from the extreme heat, of which a ſpear of ſix feet could not reach the bottom."* From Cairo to Aſſuan, or Syene, a diſtance of about 360 miles, the banks, except where rocks appear, preſent no native plant, but riſe as it were in ſteps, Face of the Country.

* Browne, p. 64.

as

Face of the Country.

as the Nile has in different ages worn its way, and are ſown with various eſculent vegetables. The agriculture is of the ſimpleſt kind, the chief article being wheat with barley for the horſes; oats being ſcarcely known in Aſia or Africa. In the delta rice is the chief grain, with maize and lentils; nor are ſome kinds of clover unknown. The lands chiefly belong to the government or to the moſks. The tenants are not reſtricted to the ſoil; but are at liberty to move on the expiration of a kind of leaſe.

Rivers. Nile.

The only river of Egypt is the Nile, already deſcribed in the general view of Africa. Its greateſt breadth, even here, is about one-third of a mile; and the depth about twelve feet: for receiving no ſtreams, in Egypt or the Nubian deſerts, it bears little of the uſual character of rivers that pervade ſo extenſive a courſe. The water is muddy, when it overflows of a dirty red; and cloudy even in April and May. The river begins to riſe about the 19th of June, the Abyſſinian rains having begun in April; and it ceaſes in October. It abounds with fiſh, particularly kinds of ſalmon and eels. The hippopotamus is unknown in Egypt; and even the crocodile reſtricted to the ſouth of Aſſiut.

Lakes.

There are ſeveral extenſive lakes in the northern parts of Egypt, the largeſt being that of Menzala which communicates with the ſea by one or two outlets. Next is that of Berelos, followed by that of Elko. Theſe ſtagnant waters at the mouths of the Nile ſeem unknown to Ptolemy, and to have been produced, or enlarged, by the ſandy depoſitions of the river having raiſed the bed of the ſea, ſo that the delta is diminiſhing, inſtead of being increaſed as ſome recent theories affirm. The lake of Mareotis, on the ſouth of Alexandria, has however become almoſt dry; though occaſionally, as would ſeem, moiſtened by inlets from the ſea.* The lake called Kerun, in a curious diſtrict of Egypt forming an excreſcence to the weſt, ſeems to be about thirty miles in length and ſix miles in breadth; and has no appearance of being artificial as ſome ſuppoſe, the Moeris of antiquity being probably the Bathen, a long deep canal to the S. E. The Natron lakes muſt not be forgotten,

* Mr. Baldwin, Recollections, 1801, 12mo. p. 185. mentions the haze and vapour always floating over this exhaling lake: but p. 203 he ſays the lake of Mareotis is dry.

being ſo called from their production of that kali, which ſupplies the uſe of barilla. They are ſituated in the deſert near a remarkable channel, ſuppoſed to have been anciently a branch of the Nile, and ſtill called the Bahr Belame, or river without water: but it was probably an outlet of the lake of Kerun, in remote ages, before the deſerts had become ſo extenſive; for there ſeems little doubt that they increaſe; and it is probable that when Egypt boaſted her early power, the mountains were cloathed with vegetation, and the Nile a far ſuperior ſtream. Lakes.

The mountains have been already deſcribed as ranging along the banks of the Nile, but chiefly between that river and the Red Sea. In Lower Egypt, and on the weſtern ſide of the Nile, they ſeem to be chiefly of calcareous ſand-ſtone, or what is called free-ſtone; ſome perhaps are of argillaceous and ſiliceous ſand-ſtone. The pyramids are generally conſtructed of a ſoft calcareous free-ſtone, full of ſhells, like that uſed at Bath; and the rock on which they ſtand is of the ſame ſubſtance[5]. In Upper Egypt the mountains towards the Red Sea are porphyreous and granitic. On paſſing towards Coſſeir the rugged and lofty rocks have a grand and terrific appearance, conſiſting chiefly of red granite, and porphyry red and green, the latter being the ophite or ſnake-ſtone of the ancients, by a far more proper appellation, as the word *porphyry* implies *red* or purple. Here is alſo found the celebrated *verde antico*, or green marble with white and dark ſpots: it ariſes in the neighbourhood of ſerpentine, under a blue ſchiſtus. The are alſo red and other marbles. Near Syene Pococke obſerved the quarries of red granite, whence the ancient obeliſks were dug; their great length being hollowed out from the rock, in the form of ſteps, for the convenience of working, and eaſy carriage to the Nile. Mountains.

The rich valley of the Nile has been for ſo many ages under the dominion of man, and can boaſt the proud ſucceſſion of ſo many hundred harveſts, that it is by no means eaſy to diſtinguiſh its native vegetables from thoſe which have been introduced at various periods for profit or pleaſure, and have gradually naturalized themſelves in the ſoil of Egypt. Wherever the annual inundations extend, a number of ſeeds, brought Botany.

[5] Browne, 173.

down

Botany. down by the torrent from Ethiopia and Abyſſinia, muſt be depoſited together with the fertilizing mud, which, vegetating regularly every year, are probably miſtaken for truly indigenous plants. We ſhall therefore mention ſuch of the Egyptian vegetables as are of moſt importance, either by their preſent uſe or ancient fame, without being very ſolicitous to examine whether they are real natives or naturalized ſtrangers.

The Lotus and Papyrus have always been the appropriate decorations of the God of the Nile: the former of theſe is a ſpecies of Nymphæa or water lily, which at the retreat of the inundation covers all the canals and ſhallow pools with its broad round leaves, among which are its cup-ſhaped bloſſoms of pure white, or cærulean blue, repoſing with inimitable grace on the ſurface of the water. The Papyrus, ſacred to literature, after having long vaniſhed from the borders of the Nile, has at length been again recogniſed in the cyperus papyrus of the Linnæan ſyſtem. The arum colocaſia of ancient fame is ſtill cultivated in Egypt for its large eſculent roots. The Egyptian Sycomore (Ficus ſycomorus), probably introduced from the oppoſite ſhore of Arabia, is of peculiar value from its fruit, its depth of ſhade, and the vigour with which it grows, even on the ſandy frontiers of the deſert. The Date Palm, the Piſtachia, the oriental Plane, and the Bead tree, adorn the ſhore, and are cultivated in the vicinity of moſt of the towns. The cypreſs overſhadows the burial grounds, and the caperbuſh roots itſelf in the ruins of Egyptian, Greek, and Roman civilization. The ſenna, the Mimoſa nilotica, and the Henné (Lawſonia inermis), are alſo characteriſtic of Egypt; from the latter of theſe, the women prepare that yellow dye with which they tinge the nails of their fingers. All the moſt exquiſite of the European fruits, ſuch as the Almond, the Orange, Pomegranate, Fig, Peach, and Apricot, are cultivated here with great aſſiduity and ſucceſs; the various kinds of Melons and Gourds grow to full perfection, and compoſe no unimportant portion of the food of the inhabitants; and mingled with theſe productions of the temperate regions are found the Plantain, the Sugar-cane, the Cotton, and a few others, that have formerly been imported hither from the Tropical climates.

The animals of Egypt have been repeatedly deſcribed. A French naturaliſt ſeems recently to have demonſtrated from the ſize of the bones, and other circumſtances, that the noted ibis of the ancients was not a kind of ſtork, as commonly conceived, but a curlew. The bird has not been ſeen by modern travellers, having deſerted the country, from the failure of ſome particular food, or other cauſe. The mineralogy of Egypt is not opulent, nor does it ſeem ever to have produced any of the metals. A mountain towards the Red Sea is ſtyled that of emeralds; and even now the beſt emeralds are by the Perſians called thoſe of Said, or Upper Egypt: but the mines are no longer worked, and even the ſpot ſeems unknown *. Wad has publiſhed an account of Egyptian foſſils, from ancient fragments in the muſeum of Cardinal Borgia at Veletri. They are of red granite; white granite with hornblende; grey felſpar, and black hornblende †. The porphyry ſeems petroſilex with ſpots of felſpar. There is alſo a little fragment, with hieroglyphics, of micaceous ſchiſtus, conſiſting of browniſh black mica: other remains are of ſand-ſtone, and ſand-ſtone breſcia, felſpar, ſerpentine, lapis ollaris, white marble with veins of ſilver mica, ſwine-ſtone, what is called green

Zoology.

Mineralogy.

* In the travels of Mr. Bruce there are ſeveral valuable articles of new and authentic information, which might have been preſented to the public in a ſmall volume or two. But, in a ſpirit of univerſal compilation, he has diſgraced his work with innumerable groſs errors. Dr. Vincent has obſerved, that he has even confounded the gulf of Perſia with the Red Sea; and Goſſellin has added, that he has confounded the Iſle of Topazes (thoſe of the ancients were yellow green, Pliny 37. 8.) with the mountain of emeralds. Hence his ideas concerning the emeralds of the ancients are beneath notice. The ancient emeralds were confeſſedly harder than thoſe of Peru, but thoſe from Ceylon are thought to be green ſapphires, the hardneſs being 16, while the Peruvian emerald is 12 (diamond 20). Pliny 37. 5. claſſes the emerald next to the pearl and diamond; and ſays they were ſeldom or never engraved, to avoid injuring their beauty: but the hardneſs of the Scythian above Bactria, as he explains, that is from the Imaus; and of the Egyptian; was ſuch that they could not be cut. *Quapropter decreto hominum iis parcitur, ſcalpi vetitis. Quamquam Scythicorum Ægyptiorumque duritia tanta eſt, ut nequeant vulnerari.* Lib. 37. cap. 5. It further appears from his deſcription that the idea concerning the ſuperiority of the emeralds of Peru is wholly erroneous.

† This he ſays is the *ſyenites* of Werner, an abſurd appellation, for Pliny tells us that the ſyenites was a red ſtone. It is in fact only an ancient name for red granite: but mineralogiſts are rarely verſed in erudition. Ogilby in his Africa, 1671, fol. p. 97, gravely informs us, that the red (felſpar) denotes fire; the cryſtaline (quartz) air; the bluiſh opake (quartz) water; and the black (mica) earth: ſo that in their obeliſks of granite the Egyptians compriſed ſymbols of the four elements.

Mineralogy. baſalt by the Italians, and jaſper of various kinds: with topaz, or the chryſolite of the ancients, amethyſt, rock cryſtal, calcedony, onyx, carnelian, heliotrope, obſidian, lazulite; but there ſeem to be none of emerald. Many are of baſalt, or the Ethiopic ſtone of Herodotus and Strabo; Pliny adding that the native word means *iron*: the Egyptian is ſometimes a grunſten, being black hornblende with veins of felſpar; and particles of hornblende are viſible in all theſe baſalts. Theſe notices become intereſting, as the Egyptians were the firſt inventors of ſculpture and architecture, and the original materials may juſtly excite curioſity. Beſides the natron lakes, there are ſome mineral ſprings, and one of ſalt water near Cairo, which is ſuppoſed to have medical virtues. The whole country may be regarded as one natural curioſity.

Nubia. BETWEEN Egypt and Abyſſinia is an extenſive tract, about 600 miles in length, and 500 in breadth, by the ancients ſtyled Ethiopia, but more preciſely by the Arabian geographers called Nubia. The iſle of Meroe was formed by the junction of the Aſtaboras with the Nile; and it is not improbable that a ſouthern channel, deſcribed by Ptolemy, may ſince have been dried up by the encroaching deſert. The greateſt part of Nubia is occupied by wide deſerts on the eaſt and weſt: but on the Nile are two ſtates of ſome little conſequence, Dongola on the north, and Sennaar on the ſouth. Sennaar was in a ſtate of ſervile war, the ſlaves having uſurped the government, when Mr. Browne viſited Darfur. Bruce deſcribes his interview with the king, or rather chief, and his diſtinguiſhed haram. In Auguſt and September the country around the city preſents a pleaſant verdure: but the people are deceitful and ferocious. The general dreſs is a long blue ſhirt; and the food moſtly millet, though there be no want of cattle. Dongola does not merit a deſcription: and the whole of Nubia is a miſerable country, inhabited by a miſerable people *.

* See the Travels of Poncet, a French phyſician, 1698, in Lockman's Travels of the Jeſuits, I. 192. Near Sennaar were foreſts of acacia, full of paroquets. The trees, p. 203, ſeem to be the cotton trees of America.

MAHOMETAN STATES IN THE NORTH.

TRIPOLI.—TUNIS.—ALGIER.—MOROCCO.

THESE are Tripoli, Tunis, Algier, and Morocco. Of theſe Tripoli is the moſt extenſive, and the leaſt known. The territories reach from the gulph of Cabes, the leſſer Syrtis of antiquity, to the confines of Egypt, being chiefly the Africa proper, and Lybia of the ancients; but a great part is deſert. Tripoli does not appear to be ancient, the neareſt ſituations being the Sabatra and Oea of antiquity, while perhaps Tripoli is the port of Piſidon of Ptolemy *. The metropolis of Arabian Africa was Cairoan, about fifty miles to the S. of Tunis, where reſided the governors appointed by the Califs of Damaſcus: and about the year 800 they aſſumed royal authority, and the dynaſty of the Fatimites paſſed from Africa to Egypt. The Zeirites afterwards reigned at Cairoan. Tripoli was beſieged by the Egyptians, A. D. 877, and A. D. 1050. In 1146 it was ſeized by the Normans from Sicily, who held this coaſt till 1159. The power of the Turks is recent, only dating from 1514, when Barbaroſſa ſeized Algier; but it has continued more peculiarly at Tripoli †, where the Bey was conſidered as immediately ſubject to the Porte, a Turkiſh Paſha ſuperintending his conduct; and the combined taxations have effectually ruined the country. Famine is alſo no unuſual circumſtance; and the depredations of the Arabs form an additional calamity. The town of Tripoli is in a low ſituation, but to the S. are plantations of date trees and verdant hills, which relieve the tameneſs of the ſcene [1]. It is in a ſtate of rapid decay, ſcarcely four miles

City of Tripoli.

* It was built after the age of that geographer, but is mentioned as the birth-place of the emperor Severus. The name according to D'Anville was originally that of the province, as containing three cities. When the Arabs entered Africa in the ſeventh century they encountered conſiderable reſiſtance at Tripoli. See Gibbon ix. 450.

† The emperor Charles V. took Tripoli, and reſigned it to the knights of Malta, who ſoon loſt this poſſeſſion, but their proximity has ſtifled the piracy of the Tripolitans. In 1686 this city was humbled by the bombardment of a French fleet, and ſent an embaſſy of ſubmiſſion to Louis XIV.

[1] Lucas in the Proceedings of the African Society, 1790, 4to. p. 48.

Tripoli. in circumference, and thinly peopled; the ancient caſtle, though ſtill the reſidence of the reigning family, being in a ruinous condition. At preſent the Bey ſeems to be honoured or diſgraced with the title and functions of Paſha; while the prince's eldeſt ſon has the title of Bey. Even the tributary Arabs are often in a ſtate of inſurrection; and the month of December, when the graſs begins to preſent ſufficient forage, is a common ſeaſon of warfare. There are olive and date trees, white thorn, and Spaniſh broom; but the fields of grain are few and ſcanty. Towards Meſurata the vegetation is more luxuriant; but of the ancient Cyrene, an intereſting ſpot, there is no recent account.

Tunis. Next on the weſt is Tunis, the central region of northern Africa, the weſtern part of the proper Africa of antiquity, and formerly the chief ſeat of Carthaginian power. In the middle ages Tripoli was ſubject to Tunis, which was ſeized by Barbaroſſa in 1533. Of this kingdom, as it is called, Dr. Shaw has given a good deſcription, having travelled through the greater part of it; and it is to be regretted that he did not viſit Tripoli, ſtill an obſcure region in geography. In the ſummer the Bey of Tunis reſides in the northern part, and in winter retires to the ſouth, where there is a lake of conſiderable extent, the Palus Tritonis of antiquity. The chief river is the Mejerda, the Bagrada of claſſical repute. The chain of Atlas ſeems here to terminate, in Cape Bon, being called the mountains of Megala, Uzelett, &c.: but our author's chief purſuit being antiquities, the natural objects are treated with leſs care. Among the mineral productions he has obſerved alabaſter, cryſtal, boles, plumbago, iron, lead. The cattle are ſmall and ſlender, and the horſes have degenerated. The ſheep of Zaara are as tall as fallow deer. There are lions, panthers, hyenas, chakals, and other ferocious animals. The manufactures are velvets, ſilks, linen, and red caps worn by the common people. In general the Tuniſians are renowned as the moſt polite and civilized among the Mahometans of Africa, a character for which they are probably indebted to the ſituation of their country, for many ages the ſeat of the chief African powers. The ruins of Carthage, not far to the N. E. of Tunis, have been accurately illuſtrated by Dr. Shaw *. The town of Tunis is about three miles in circumference,

* This city was founded about 1250 or 1300 years before the birth of Chriſt, as appears from Herodotus and the Parian Chronicle.

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containing about ten thouſand houſes, or perhaps 50,000 ſouls. The chief exports ſeem to be woollen ſtuffs, red caps, gold-duſt, lead, oil, Morocco leather: and the commerce with France was conſiderable. Tunis.

Algier may be regarded as the laſt Mahometan ſtate on the Mediterranean, for Morocco is chiefly extended along the Atlantic. In the thirteenth century Africa was firſt divided into thoſe petty royalties, which ſtill ſubſiſt with few variations. In 1514 Barbaroſſa ſeized Algier, which afterwards became a noted ſeat of pirates; and one of the Deys candidly declared that the country was a neſt of robbers, and he was their chief. This city is ſuppoſed by Shaw to be the ancient Icoſium, and is not above a mile and a half in circuit, while the inhabitants are exaggerated to more than a hundred thouſand [2]: but probably half that number would be nearer the truth. It is ludicrous to behold this power exacting tribute from the maritime ſtates of chriſtendom, while two ſhips of war, maintained at the general expence, might block up the port, and extinguiſh the claims and the piracy. The antiquities of this kingdom have been accurately examined by Dr. Shaw, whoſe work is however more full of erudition, than of ſolid and intereſting knowledge. The chief river is the Shellif, riſing from the northern ſide of the Atlas, as the Wal Jedi from the ſouthern, and afterwards bending to the weſt, being the Chinala of antiquity, while the latter is the Zabus. The kingdom of Algier chiefly compriſes the Numidia and part of the Mauretania of the ancients, being bounded on the S. by Getulia, and the chains of the Atlas, called Lowat and Ammer; which are however by Shaw's account of ſmall elevation, and the grand ridges of the Atlas are towards the weſt, in the kingdom of Morocco *. The mountain of Jurjura is the higheſt in Barbary, being about eight leagues in length, in a N. E. and S. W. direction, full of rocks and precipices, but only covered with ſnow during the winter. This mountain is about 60 B. miles to the S. E. of Algier, and perhaps forms a part of the real Atlantic chain, which in this direction will terminate more to the weſt than above ſuppoſed; but it at any rate expires in gentle elevations, Algier.

[2] Shaw, p. 68.

* Between cape Spartel and Arzilla the inland mountains are obſerved from the ſea, covered with ſnow even in May. Sail. Dir. p. 1.

Algiers. though the ſea coaſt from the river Booberik to near Bona be mountainous and rocky. The productions are in general the ſame with thoſe of Tunis. There are many ſalt rivers and ſprings, and there is a mountain of ſalt near the lake, called Marks *: there are likewiſe ſeveral mineral ſprings; and earthquakes are not unknown.

Morocco. Of the empire, or rather kingdom, of Morocco, an intereſting account has lately been publiſhed by an Engliſh traveller, who from his medical character, had acceſs even to the harams of the king, and one of the princes. This nominal empire conſiſts indeed of ſeveral ſmall kingdoms, as the old Engliſh monarchy was compoſed of the ſeven kingdoms of the heptarchy; but the ſtyle of emperor ſeems to have ariſen in the fourteenth century, when the Sultan of Morocco was for a ſhort time ſovereign of all the northern ſtates of Africa. The proper ſtyle is that of ſharif, or ſheref, derived from a ſuppoſed deſcendent of Mahomet, who ſeized the ſceptre about the year 1500. The kingdom of Fez has been united to Morocco, ſince it firſt became an independent ſovereignty in the thirteenth century; while that of Tremeſin was joined to the deydom of Algier. The ſovereigns of Morocco being of the houſe of Merini, they were ſtyled Al Merinis, and corruptly by the Spaniſh, and other authors, kings of Balmerin, being latterly the moſt powerful of the African princes. In the hands of an induſtrious people the kingdom of Morocco, or ancient Mauretania, might ſtill be of conſiderable importance; but from ignorance and want of policy, the weſtern harbours are, by Mr. Lempriere's report, blocked up with ſand, ſo that Morocco may be effaced from the liſt of maritime powers or pirates. There are heaths of great extent; and the ridge of Atlas here diſplays its lofty ſummits and moſt extenſive wildneſs; but many diſtricts are fertile, particularly that of Taſilet on the S. E. ſide of the Atlantic ridge †. In the ſummer months the heat is tempered by breezes

* What the Moors call *Shott* or *Shatt* is a ſandy plain, but ſometimes overflowed, and which receives five ſmall rivers. Shaw, 114. It is to be regretted that this author was ſo zealous an antiquary, whence his work is chiefly valuable for the illuſtration of ancient geography. The petrifying ſpring, ib. 232. led the fabling Arabs to imagine cities and their inhabitants turned into ſtone.

† It terminates at Santa Cruz, by the Arabs called Aguadir. Chenier I. 46. Lempriere, 112. and by the French St. Croix de Barbarie. Mogador is by the Arabs called Souera. Saugnier, p. 53.

from the Atlas, always clothed with ſnow. The Moors of the towns are ſomewhat civilized, particularly the mercantile claſs, and the wandering Arabs hoſpitable, but the Brebes or Brebers, who gave name to Barbary, are a fierce and obſtinate race of the ancient natives; and, ſecure in the mountainous receſſes, defy the government, being chiefly ruled by elective ſheiks. The univerſal food is *coſcoſu*, conſiſting of bits of paſte about the ſize of rice crumbled into an earthen colander, and cooked by the ſteam of boiled meat and vegetables, which are all ſerved up together in an earthen diſh, with butter and ſpices. This ſtew in which nothing is loſt, even the ſteam being received by the paſte, is the favourite meal of the peaſant and the monarch. The domeſtic animals are much the ſame as thoſe of Europe, except the camel; and dromedaries of great ſwiftneſs are procured from Guinea. The oxen and ſheep are ſmall but well flavoured: fowls and pigeons plentiful, but ducks rare, and geeſe and turkies unknown. There is plenty of game; and ſtorks are common, being free from moleſtation. In the ridge of Atlas there are mines of iron, neglected by the unſkilful Moors; but copper is wrought near Tarudant. The Portugueſe formerly held ſeveral places on the coaſt, as Santa Cruz in the S. and Tangier in the N. while the Spaniards ſtill retain Ceuta. The chief Mahometan port is Tetuan, which is rather an open road; but the town is in a pictureſque ſituation, and the people particularly friendly to the Engliſh. The city of Morocco is ſituated in a fertile plain, variegated with clumps of palm trees and ſhrubs, and watered by ſeveral lucid ſtreams from the Atlas *: the extent is conſiderable, ſurrounded by very ſtrong walls of *tabby*, a mixture of ſtone and mortar which becomes as hard as rock. The chief buildings are the royal palace and the moſks; and there is a conſiderable *jewry* or quarter inhabited by Jews. The palace conſiſts of detached pavilions, as common in the eaſt; and even the moſks are Morocco.

p. 53. When the ſherefs about A. D. 1500 ſeized the ſceptre, many fugitive Portugueſe retreated to the great deſert where their deſcendents ſtill exiſt. Ib. p. 69, &c. The character of the Moors by Briſſon, Ib. 474, &c. is truly horrible.

* The great range paſſes on the S. and E. at the diſtance of about twenty miles: and on the N. is a chain of mountains, probably the Leſſer Atlas of Ptolemy. See Lempriere, 183.

ſquares

Morocco. ſquares with porticoes, like that of Mecca, the climate not requiring a covered edifice like our churches, or the Turkiſh moſks, often originally chriſtian edifices. The dreſs of the Moors is rather ſingular; and the ladies not only paint their cheeks and chins with deep red, but make a long black mark on the forehead, another on the tip of the noſe, and ſeveral on the cheeks. The women of the haram are ignorant and childiſh, their employments being chatting in circles, and eating coſcoſu. Sidi Mohamed, the late monarch, had attained a great age, and his moſt remarkable characteriſtic was avarice: he was ſucceeded by one of his ſons called Yazed.

Botany of the North of Africa.

Botany. THE territory now occupied by the Barbary or piratical ſtates, extending from the frontiers of Egypt to the Atlantic ocean in one direction, and from the Mediterranean ſea to the Great Deſert in the other, includes a tract of country proverbial in better times for its never failing fertility. The ſoil partaking of the general character of Africa is light and ſandy with intervening rocks, though the vales of Mount Atlas, and of the ſmall ſtreams that deſcend into the Mediterranean are overſpread with a deep rich well-watered mould. Hence it is that the moſt characteriſtic of the indigenous vegetables are ſuch as flouriſh on the open ſhore, or root themſelves in the driving ſand; while the plants of rareſt occurrence are the natives of marſhes and foreſts. Many of the ſaline ſucculent ſpecies, as the Salſolæ and Salicorniæ, a few of the bulbous-rooted, as the Pancratium maritimum and Scilla marit., together with various kinds of tough long-rooted graſſes, among which the Lygeum ſpartum, Panicum numidianum, Saccharum cylindricum, and Agroſtis pungens are the chief, intermixed here and there with the Heliotropium, Soldanella and Eryngo, overſpread the flat arid ſhore, and prevent it from drifting with every wind. The dry and rocky intervals between the valleys of the interior bear a near reſemblance to the heaths of Spain; like theſe they abound in ſcattered groves of cork trees and evergreen oaks, beneath whoſe ſhade the ſage, the lavender, and other aromatic plants are found abundantly, and in high perfection.

The

The arboreſcent broom, the various ſpecies of ciſtus, the Mignonette (Reſeda odorata) the Sumach, the tree heath, together with the Aloe, Agave, and ſeveral kinds of Euphorbia and Cactus, all of them patient of heat and drought, adorn the interrupted rocks, and afford both food and ſhelter to the goats by which they are inhabited. The valleys and cool receſſes of the mountains are profuſe of beauty and fragrance; beſides the Bay, the Myrtle, the Pomegranate, the Olive, the Jaſmine, and Oleander, which are common both to Africa and the ſouth of Europe, we find here in a truly wild ſtate, the Aleppo pine, the Red Juniper, the Date-palm, the Piſtachia, the Orange, and ſuperior even to the Orange bloſſom in odour the white muſk roſe. Morocco.

To the ſouth of theſe chief Mahometan ſtates are ſeveral countries little explored, as Drah, Sijelmiſſa, or Segulmeſſa, and the Land of Dates *, ſo called becauſe that fruit conſtitutes the chief food of the inhabitants. Fezzan is a large and remarkable Oaſis in the north of the great deſert. The more central parts will be briefly illuſtrated towards the concluſion of this ſhort deſcription of Africa. Suffice it here to obſerve that, with a few exceptions of the more barbarous diſtricts, the Mahometan faith extends to the great central ridge of mountains, or within ten degrees of the equator: and wretched muſt thoſe regions have been, into which Mahometans could introduce induſtry and civilization; while in Europe and Aſia they are the fathers of deſtruction and barbariſm.

* According to ſome Biledulgerid implies the Land of Dates: but Dr. Shaw, p. 5. ſays it ſhould be *Blaid al Jerid*, or Dry Country. In Arabic it would ſeem the Land of Dates is *Guaten Temar*.

THE WESTERN COAST.

JALOFS, FOULAHS, *and other Tribes*—BENIN—LOANGO—CONGO.

ON this ſide of Africa, ſo far as hitherto explored, are innumerable tribes, as little meriting particular deſcription as thoſe of America. The Jalofs or Yolofs and Foulahs are the chief races on the rivers Senegal and Gambia; while Guinea, divided into the Grain or more properly Windward coaſt, Ivory coaſt, and Gold coaſt, chiefly ſupplies ſlaves, a trade which commenced in 1517 by a patent from the emperor Charles V, obtained at the inſtance of Las Caſas, the noted protector of the American ſavages! Hawkins, the great navigator, was the firſt Engliſhman engaged in this commerce. The ſettlements in Guinea are chiefly Portugueſe; and the ſlaves from the river Senegal are called Mandingos, from an inland country of that name; while thoſe from the gold coaſt are called Koromantees; and thoſe towards Benin Eboes.[1] For theſe ſlaves Britiſh goods have been exported to the annual value of 800,000l.

The countries of Benin and Calabar, which ſeem to afford the eaſieſt acceſs towards the interior, are followed by other ſavage tribes. The kingdoms of Congo and Angola are celebrated in Portugueſe narrations, and preſent the moſt intereſting objects in this wide extent of territory. To the ſouth of theſe there is deep obſcurity * till we arrive at the nations or tribes called Great and Little Nemakas, and Kaffers or Kouſſis, on the north of the European colony of the Cape of Good Hope.

[1] Edwards's Weſt Indies, ii. 50. The forts and factories belonging to Europeans are about forty; 15 Dutch, 14 Engliſh, 4 Portugueſe, 4 Daniſh, 3 French. Ib. 53. With the Koromantyns, Accompong is the ſupreme deity far above all worſhip. Aſſarci is the god of the earth, and Ipboa of the ſea; while Obboney is the author of evil. Ib. 72. Among the more curious animals are the chimpanzees, in the face reſembling negroes but with ſtraight hair. See Matthews's Voyage, p. 41.

* From Cape Negro to the bay of Fria the coaſt can ſcarcely be ſaid to be inhabited, but it belongs to the Cimbebas, a black nation, whoſe king is called Mataman. Sail. Dir. p. 94.

The

From the Travels in Africa

Published March 2nd 1802, by Cadell and Davies Strand and Longman and Rees Paternoster Row

VARIOUS TRIBES.

The repeated deſcription of the manners of negro tribes would little intereſt the reader, and only a few peculiarities ſhall be remarked. The Yalofs are an active and warlike race, and eſteemed the moſt handſome of the negroes. The Mandingos are widely diffuſed, and of a mild and ſociable diſpoſition. They wear cotton frocks of their own manufacture; but their huts and furniture are of the ſimpleſt kind. The Foulahs, near the river Gambia, are chiefly of a tawney complexion, with ſilky hair and pleaſing features, being probably tribes that fled from Mauretania. The Foulahs of Guinea are of a very different deſcription, and the identity of name might have been avoided. Teembo, the capital of the latter, contains about 7000 inhabitants; and there are iron mines worked by women, beſides ſome manufactures in ſilver, wood, and leather. Theſe Foulahs, it is ſaid, can bring into the field not leſs than 16,000 cavalry; and being ſurrounded by twenty-four pagan nations or tribes, theſe Mahometans never heſitate to make war for the ſake of procuring ſlaves. To the weſt of theſe Foulahs is the Engliſh ſettlement of Sierra Leone, formed in 1787, for the benevolent purpoſe of promoting African civilization.*

At the other extremity of this coaſt are the Nemakas, whoſe manners have been illuſtrated by that romantic enthuſiaſt Le Vaillant, who alſo pretends to have obſerved other tribes called Korakas and Houzouanas; the latter being, by his account, an active and hardy race, rather of a leaden colour, but with noſes ſtill flatter than thoſe of the Hottentots.[2] They often ſleep upon the bare ground; and their only arms are bows and arrows. Further particulars need not be added; as, if the author's accounts be veracious, he has ſtill the unhappy art of making them wear every appearance of fiction.

* This benign colony has been recently attacked by the ſavages, a proof that conqueſt alone can civilize Africa. By the treaty of 1783 the river of Senegal and its dependencies were left in the poſſeſſion of the French, who had extended their factories about 500 miles from the ſhore. In deſpite of D'Anville recent French writers in general call the Senegal the Nigir. Adanſon obſerves, p. 90, that the rainy ſeaſon, or what is called the winter, is the hotteſt. The village Mbao, p. 200, correſponds with the American names in Dobrizhoffer; and the burial of the dead in huts covered with ſand, p. 203, is that of the Patagonians deſcribed by Falkner.

[2] Second Journey, iii. 166, but ſee Dapper's Africa for the Houſaquas.

Benin. The kingdom of Benin is aſſerted to be very conſiderable; and it is ſaid that the monarch could raiſe an army of one hundred thouſand. The capital of the ſame name is ſaid to contain thirty ſtreets of low houſes, while the inhabitants are remarkable for cleanlineſs and propriety of behaviour. They are ſaid to acknowledge a ſupreme benevolent deity, whoſe worſhip they deem ſuperfluous, as he can neither be influenced, enraged, nor appeaſed; but they offer ſacrifices to inferior and malignant ſpirits, in order to ſoothe their enmity.*

Loango. Loango is a country of no ſmall extent, on the N. of Congo, and of which an account has been publiſhed by Pigaſetta and others, tranſcribed at conſiderable length in Dr. Dapper's Africa, from which that of Ogilby is chiefly tranſlated. The people are rather induſtrious, as there are weavers, ſmiths, potters, carpenters, and makers of canoes, caps, and beads. The exports are elephants' teeth, copper, tin, lead, iron. The common people are held in a kind of ſlavery, but may migrate. The ſuperſtition of magic prevails, as uſual among the African tribes; and the ſuppoſed enchantment or ſuperior power is called *mokiſi*, while a magician is ſtyled *ganga*.† But the beſt and moſt recent account of Loango is that drawn up by Proyart, from the memoirs of Belgarde and other French miſſionaries, who ſettled in this country in 1766.[3] The capital Bouali is by the French called Loango. The dry ſeaſon begins with April, and ends with October; but the greateſt heat

* The river of Benin appears to be conſiderable from Boſman's account, p. 399, but is divided into many branches, and the climate moſt pernicious. The government ſeems a ſingular ariſtocracy of three chiefs, who control even the king. Strings of *coral* are worn as badges of honour; but this coral, p. 408, is a pale red earth or ſtone like ſpeckled red marble, and there is alſo, p. 102, a blue ſort. Was the coral of Tibet of this kind? Here, as in almoſt every part of Africa, the commoneſt events are imputed to witchcraft. Benin is only a village of clay houſes, there being no ſtones in the country larger than a man's fiſt.

† In Anzico, a kingdom to the N. W., (the royal title is Micoco) Dapper aſſerts that the markets were ſupplied with human fleſh; nay it is even affirmed that all the dead are devoured. Univ. Hiſt. xiii. 266. Angola is ſaid to produce the orang outang, there called quoas morrou, and Tulpius has deſcribed one ſent to the Prince of Orange, while Dapper and Ogilby have publiſhed a print. From Angola many ſlaves are exported. The proper name of the country ſeems Dongo, while N Gola is the royal ſtyle, but the N is ſcarcely pronounced. Proyart, 175.

3. Paris, 1776, 12mo. with a curious map of the mouth of the Zahir.

is

is in the rainy ſeaſon, or the other ſix months.* Our author aſſerts that even the mountains are of mere clay, without rock or ſtone; and the rivers do not increaſe in the rainy ſeaſon. The ſoil ſeems to be wholly a compact clay, which ſometimes ſplits into vaſt abyſſes. Vegetation however flouriſhes; and among the trees are the cocoa, banana, orange, lemon, pimento, with the cotton ſhrub, and ſugar cane. The palm wine, a favourite African beverage, is procured by piercing the tree where the fruit begins to ſwell from the trunk. Loango.

The lateſt account of Congo ſeems to be that by John Anthony Cavazzi de Monte Cuculo, a capuchin miſſionary, which appears however to be ſomewhat tainted with falſe miracles and fanaticiſm.* In October begins what may be called the ſpring, but heavy rains continue for two or three months. About the end of January is one harveſt; and in March more gentle rains commence and continue till May, when there is a ſecond dry ſeaſon or harveſt; their nominal winter beginning in July. The Zahir or Zair is a grand and rapid river, and the mouth ſaid to be five leagues in width, freſhening the ſea to a great diſtance. It has vaſt cataracts, near one of which is a mine of bright yellow copper.† The Dante is an animal like a ſmall ox, with bright black horns, reſembling thoſe of a goat. The houſes are round thatched hovels, even in the chief city, called St. Salvador by the Portugueſe. The Congoeſe have the negro colour without the features, which rather reſemble the European; hair ſometimes of a deep reddiſh brown, and eyes of a dark green or ſea colour. Once a year the graves are opened, and the bodies or bones decorated. This cuſtom ſeems peculiar to Congo.

* P. 11. The climate is moſt pernicious to ſtrangers, but the uſe of flannel and the bark is recommended by Mr. Maxwell. See his chart of the river of Congo, or the Sailing Directions of the African Pilot, p. 88. But the natives are ſo healthy that the king of Kacongo was 128 years of age. Proyart, 103 and 388.

* It was printed at Bologna, 1687, folio; and tranſlated by Labat in his *Ethiopie Occidentale*, 5 vol. which muſt not be confounded with the *Afrique Occidentale* of that moſt voluminous editor and compiler.

† The Zahir, or river of Congo, is very rapid and brings down numbers of floating iſlands, like the river Benin, ſome a hundred yards in length. African Pilot, S. D. p. 88. But the mouth is only ſomewhat more than two leagues in breadth. Ib. 86. The Engliſh yearly export from Yomba many cargoes of a red dyeing wood. Proyart, 159; who adds, p. 167, that 200 regular troops would conquer all the ſouth of Africa.

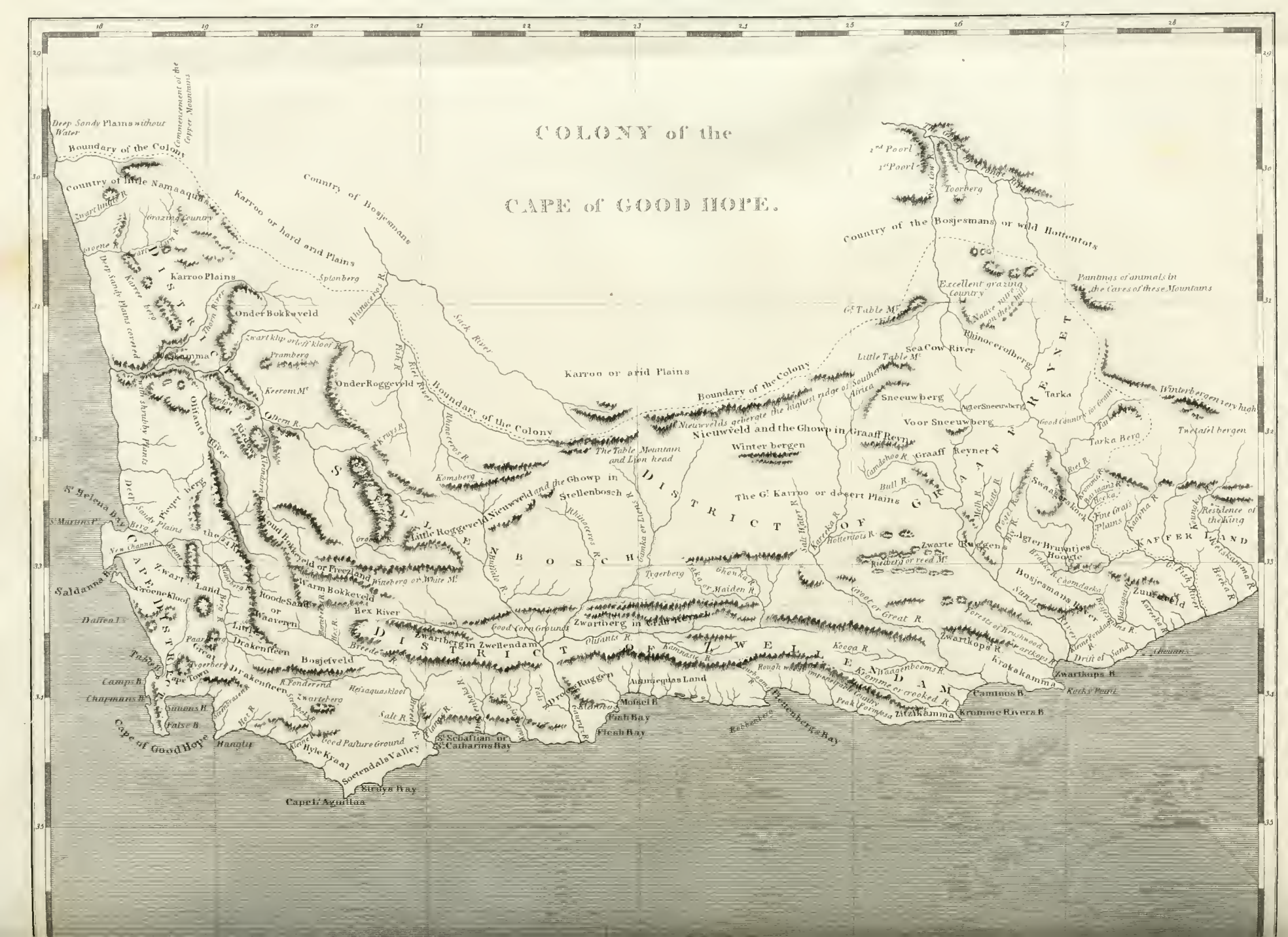
Congo. Africa and America.* Congo produces millet, maize, and excellent fruits; with the ſugar cane, and varieties of the palm. There are ſaid to be mines of iron and copper: and among the animals is named the *cojas morrou*, which ſeems the *orang outang* of Borneo. The accounts of the Portugueſe writers, the chief authorities concerning Congo, and the neighbouring ſtates, often border ſo much on the fabulous, that amidſt doubtful circumſtances brevity becomes the ſafeſt choice. If they be credited, the aliconda, a tree of this country, is of ſo great bulk that ten men cannot fathom it, while the fruit reſembles a gourd, and the bark yields a coarſe thread, of which ropes are formed: a deſcription which would ſeem to indicate a ſpecies of the cocoa palm.[5]

Botany of the Weſtern Coaſt.

This coaſt appears in general to be ſufficiently well watered, and accordingly bears a ſtriking reſemblance in its vegetable productions to the oppoſite ſhore of the American continent. The uſual plants of the tropical climates are found here in perfection and in great abundance, but we yet want a ſcientific catalogue of indigenous vegetables to aſcertain what are the peculiar and characteriſtic features of its flora. The low ſhores of the rivers, as far as the tide reaches, are bordered with mangroves and bamboos: the luxuriant Guinea graſs, the ſugar-cane, ginger, turmeric, and cocoa-nut, with various other ſpecies of palms,

* From Proyart's Hiſtory of Loango, p. 62, it appears that the Portugueſe have been completely expelled from this kingdom. When the Dutch under Prince Maurice ſubdued a part of Brazil, they found it neceſſary to attack Angola, 1640, for a ſupply of ſlaves, without which the other conqueſt would have been of no value. Their tranſactions in this country are related by Barlæus in his account of the expedition to Brazil, Cleves 1660, 12mo. Of Congo, &c. there is a good account in the Modern Univerſal Hiſtory, which is carefully compiled from original authors. See vols. xv. xvi. edit. 1760, or xii. and xiii. edit. 1781. Slavery is not a foreign import, but indigenal in Africa; and in Benguela, a kingdom or province to the S. of Angola, the natives will ſell their relations or children, from mere wantonneſs. Ib. xiii. 7. The chief worſhip of the Giagas conſiſts in frequent ſacrifices of human victims, particularly children. In ſuch a country ſlavery is a deliverance. The Galas ſeem to be a tribe of the Giagas: who are ſaid on the ſouth to have once penetrated as far as the Cape of Good Hope. Univ. Hiſt. xiii. 251.

[5] See Dapper's Africa.


COLONY of the
CAPE of GOOD HOPE.
Deep Sandy Plains without Water
Boundary of the Colony
Country of little Namaaquas
Commencement of the Copper Mountains
Karroo or hard arid Plains
Country of Bosjesmans
Splonberg
Karroo Plains
Onder Bokkeveld
Zwartkop or Kloof R.
Pramberg
Onder Roggeveld
Keerom Mt.
Olifants River
Olifants R.
Krueger R.
Rhinoceros R.
Sack River
Karroo or arid Plains
Boundary of the Colony
Nieuwveld and the Ghowp in Graaff Reynet
Winter bergen
The Table Mountain and Lion head
Komsberg
Stellenbosch
Rhinoceros R.
Little Roggeveld
Nieuwveld and the Ghowp in Stellenbosch
The Gt. Karroo or desert Plains
Great Bokkeveld or Fineland
Pinebergor White Mt.
Warm Bokkeveld
Hex River
Zwartberg in Zwellendam
Good Corn Grounds
Olifants R.
Tygerberg
Ghonaqua or Maiden R.
Table Mt.
Table Bay
Cape Town
Drakenstein
Bosjesveld
Zwartberg
Hottentots Holland Mts.
Hottentots R.
Salt Water R.
Karroo R.
Zwarte Ruggen
Kirkberg or reed Mt.
Igter Bruintjes Hoogte
Bosjesmans River
Groot or Great R.
Zwarthops R.
Krakakamma
Zwarthops B.
Camtous B.
Krakamma Rivers B.
Algoa Bay
Zuurveld
Kaffer Land
Residence of the King
Tarka
Tarka Berg
Winterbergen very high
Twefontein bergen
Sneeuwberg
Voor Sneeuwberg
Ager Sneeuwberg
Graaff Reynet
Sea Cow River
Rhinocerosberg
Gt. Table Mt.
Little Table Mt.
Excellent grazing Country
Native mill on these hills
Paintings of animals in the Caves of these Mountains
Country of the Bosjesmans or wild Hottentots
2nd Poorl
1st Poorl
Toorberg
Bay Fontein R.
Bushmans R.
Zwartkops R.
Drift of Sand
Kaffer Land
Residence of the King
Saldanha Bay
St. Helena Bay
St. Martins P.
Dassen I.
Cape of Good Hope
Hangklip
Hyle Kraal
Soetendals Valley
St. Schastian or St. Catharins Bay
Struys Bay
Capel d'Agulhas
Fish Bay
Flesh Bay
Algoa Bay
Zwart Land
Groene Kloof
Roode Sand or Waaveren
Little Drakenstein
Paarlberg Great
Tygerberg
Fonderend
Zwartberg
Hottentots Holland Mts.
Hex R.
Breede R.
Olifants R.
Good Corn Grounds
Zwartberg in Zwellendam
Hottentots R.
Salt Water R.
Karroo R.
Zwarte Ruggen
Kirkberg or reed Mt.
Igter Bruintjes Hoogte
Bosjesmans River
Groot or Great R.
Zwarthops R.
Krakakamma
Zwarthops B.
Camtous B.
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Algoa Bay
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Winterbergen very high
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Hangklip
Hyle Kraal
Soetendals Valley
St. Schastian or St. Catharins Bay
Struys Bay
Capel d'Agulhas
Fish Bay
Flesh Bay

root themſelves in the moiſt deep ſoils. Numerous kinds of dyeing woods, and of timber fit for ornamental or uſeful purpoſes, abound in the foreſts. Indigo and cotton of a ſuperior quality are met with; both wild and cultivated. The ſweet caſſava, differing from the American manioc in being perfectly innoxious and wholeſome even without cooking, the Guinea pepper or capſicum, the yam, ſweet potatoe, rice, maize, gourds and melons of all kinds, are the principal food of the inhabitants, and probably are indigenous. The copal tree, the ſandal wood, ebony, and mimoſa Senegal, from which exudes the mucilaginous gum of the ſame name, are plentiful in the drier and ſandy parts of the country. BOTANY.

COLONY OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

THIS territory, upon the recent Engliſh conqueſt, was found to be of more conſiderable extent than had been ſuppoſed, being 550 Engliſh miles in length, and 233 in breadth, comprehending an area of 128,150 ſquare miles.[1] The white inhabitants, excluſive of Cape Town, do not exceed 15,000; and the whole may be about 20,000. The Dutch ſettlement was formed in 1660. To the S. E. of Cape Town are ſome ſmall vineyards, which yield the noted wine called Conſtantia; and even in remote diſtricts there are plantations of various kinds: but large tracts are irrecoverably barren, conſiſting of ranges of mountains, and level plains of hard clay ſprinkled with ſand, commonly called *karroos*. The mountainous chains run from E. to W. being probably terminating branches of a ſpine paſſing N. and S. like thoſe of the Uralian ridge. The firſt ridge is from twenty to ſixty miles from the ſea: the ſecond, called the Zwart Berg, or black mountain, is more lofty and rugged, and about the ſame diſtance from the firſt: the third is the

[1] Barrow's Travels, 1801, 4to. p. 9.

Nieuveld,

Nieuveld, which with the ſecond incloſes a great karroo or deſert, riſing like a terrace about 300 miles in length E. and W. and 80 in breadth. The country is more fertile towards the Indian ocean than towards the Atlantic, a character which ſeems to pervade Africa; as on the eaſt is Abyſſinia, while on the weſt is the Zaara. The chief reſorts of trading veſſels are Falſe Bay on the S. and Table Bay on the N, which opens to Cape Town. The mountains in the vicinity of the Cape are of blue ſchiſtus, and indurated clay, mingled with balls of granite, blocks of which ſubſtance are common on the hills of ſouthern Africa, ſtrangely hollowed out into cavities, the reſorts of runaway ſlaves. On the granite and clay is ſiliceous ſand-ſtone, ſurmounted by granular quartz; this deſcription may extend to moſt of the inland mountains; but thoſe called the Copper mountains, S. lat 29° 40′, ſupply a prodigious quantity of that metal in the form of vitreous ore, which is ſmelted by the Damaras, a Kaffer or Kouſſi nation in the vicinity. The rocks called the Pearl and the Diamond are vaſt fragments of granite; and Mr. Barrow diſcovered far to the north what he called the Nemaka Pearls, conſiſting of large rounded maſſes of that ſtone. There are ſome wolves and hyenas, and various kinds of antelopes; and among birds eagles, vultures, kites, crows, turtle doves, &c. more inland are all the wild and ferocious animals of Africa, and hippopotami abound in the rivers. Mr. Barrow wounded a condor, the ſpread of whoſe wings was ten feet and one inch.

Botany. There are few places whoſe natural hiſtory has been ſo ably explored as the territory of the Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope and the countries adjacent: nor does any ſeem to have better repaid the labour of reſearch. The botany of ſouthern Africa is more rich and peculiar than that of any other country, and moſt of the ſingular and beautiful inhabitants of our ſtoves and green-houſes have been hence procured. Numbers however equally remarkable remain behind, which from their ſize, or from accident, or from the neceſſity of ſelection among a multitude, are as yet ſtrangers to European cultivation. The claſs of bulbous-rooted plants alone might be ſelected as peculiarly characteriſtic of the Cape, for no where elſe are they found ſo abundant, ſo various, or ſo ſplendid: what pen can deſcribe the innumerable gay varieties of the

ixia inoculata, or the exquiſite fragrance of the nocturnal ixia cinnamomæa; who can reckon up the beautiful ſpecies of iris, moræa, gladiolus, amaryllis, hæmanthus and pancratium, which at the concluſion of the autumnal rains adorn the meadows at the foot of the mountains with every brilliant hue that can be imagined? Nor is it only at one ſeaſon of the year that this ſplendid ſcene is exhibited, every month has its peculiar beauties; to the bulbous plants ſucceed the ſpecies more patient of heat and drought: the bright gnaphaliums, the xeranthemum fulgidum, and ſpecioſiſſimum, remarkable for their flowers of red, yellow and ſilky white, the ſcented geraniums and pelargoniums glowing on the ſides of the hills intermixed with the hundred ſpecies of ſhrubby and arboreſcent heaths, compoſe a ſcene of unrivalled magnificence, where the eye wanders with delight from beauty to beauty, till fatigued with ſplendour it repoſe on the light ſilvery foliage of the protea argentea, on the vigorous green of the ſpreading oak, or the ſtill deeper hue of the aſpiring ſtone pine. The hard and ſtony waſtes are ſcattered over with ſucculent plants of the ſtapelia, meſembryanthemum, euphorbia, craſſula cotyledon, and aloe; while ſuch of them as aſſume the height and character of trees, mixed with the weeping willow and mimoſæ of various kinds, overſpread the banks of the temporary torrents. The foreſts are principally on the eaſtern border of the ſettlement, and have been but little explored; they furniſh the iron wood, the African oak, the Haſſagai wood, the taxus elongatus or yellow wood, a few ſpecies of Zamia or Sago palm, the ſcarlet flowered guaiacum, and the incomparably ſplendid ſtrelitſia reginæ. Botany.

For a more minute account of this intereſting colony, the only European ſettlement in Africa that deſerves the name, the reader is referred to the excellent work already quoted, which forms a ſtriking contraſt with the gaſconades of Le Vaillant. Mr. Barrow viſited the Kouſſis in the eaſt: and conceives that a belt of that race ſpreads acroſs to the Atlantic. The Nemakas are of the ſame race with the Hottentots;* but the Damaras on the Copper Mountains, and north to the

* Sparrman, i. 183, obſerved the natural complexion of the Hottentots to be an umber yellow. By his account as well as that of Barrow, the lion is an inſidious and cowardly animal. This ingenious traveller, ii. 119, &c. conſiders the hippopotamus as a larger animal than the rhinoceros, and next in ſize to the elephant.

Orange river and tropic of Capricorn, are Kouffis, a race whom our author ſuſpects to be of Arabian extract, as they widely differ from the Hottentots and the negroes, and are acquainted with the ſmelting of copper, and ſome other rude arts. The country of the Damaras is ſo barren and ſandy that they cannot keep cattle. The Orange river, alſo called the Groot or Great river, ſeems to riſe about S. lat. 30°. long. 28°. E. from Greenwich, and paſſes W. by N. till it join the ſea between the Great and Little Nemakas. There are high cataracts; and it has inundations like the Nile. On the ſhores are carnelians, calcedonies, agates and variolites. "The rains in the great mountains beyond the Kaffers and the Tambookies, along the feet of which the Orange river runs, collecting their tributary ſtreams in its paſſage, commence in November, and cauſe the inundations to take place towards the Nemaka country in December."[2] Mr. Barrow's account terminates with part of the country of the little Nemakas, included in the colony: beyond which are the Copper Mountains and ſandy deſerts; and he ridicules Vaillant's ſuppoſed excurſions in this quarter, while he never paſſed the Orange river. Yet Mr. Barrow ſeems a ſtranger to the camelopardalis, which the French traveller appears certainly to have hunted and brought to Europe. The prepoſterous vanity of Vaillant greatly injures the credibility of his narrative, and his map of the colonial poſſeſſions cannot be compared with the actual ſurvey by Mr. Barrow. To the north of the Green River the map of the French author ſeems imaginary, as he is a ſtranger to the Damaras, though he inſert the Copper Mountains.*

[2] Barrow, p. 298. The Tambookies are to the N. E. of the Kouffis; thus according to our author's idea, there is a great range paſſing N.W. and S. E. about lat. 32°. or 33. This great range, Paterſon, p. 125, ſays, runs E. and W. at the diſtance of about four days' journey from the mouth of the Orange river, being called the mountains of Brenas; probably the inmoſt terrace of the Table land of ſouthern Africa, which ſeems to be pervaded by the Jagas, a wandering nation like the Tatars. Near the Orange river Paterſon obſerved that the natives cut off the firſt joint of their little finger.

* His Orange River flows from N. E. to S. W. the reverſe of the truth: and beyond the Great Nemakas he places a ſtream called the River of Fiſh, with the tribes of Kabobikas and Hou-

EAST AFRICA.
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Sicily
Morea
Athens
Sparta
Candia
Cyprus
Satalia
Seleukie
Tarsus
Alexandretta
Aleppo
Antioch
Latakeah
Ruad
Tortosa
Tripoli
Palmyra
Balbeck
Damascus
Tyre
Mt. Carmel
Jerusalem
Gaza
PALESTINE
Alexandria
Cairo
Suez
Tripoli
Lebida
Mesurata
Gulf of Sidra or Syrtis
Barca
Bengasi
Bernic
Catabathmus
Derna
Augela
Soudah
Desert
Sort Desert
Wadan
Zeara
Desert of Barca
Al Baretum
Lemaare
Lettron
Gidzarah
Seenah
Gerdebah Plain
Tipseqah
Shabarah
Zala
Zeltan Mt.
Ain Kais
LEVATÆ or Leister Oasis
Desert of Lybia
Bahnesa
Faioum
Mt. Sinai
Toor
Ailah
Kalat Moila
Mons Calcus
Nouba
Gene
Ghanna
Kurshoot
Thebes
Gaphibo
Ceram
Hamam
Shabtal
Esne
Edfu
Sehan
Temisa
Zanuba
Andaman
Sebbah
Mourzouk
Zuela
Teisceu
Germa
Kattren
Mendrah
Village of Negroes
Berdoa
LEBETÆ
FEZZ
Fezz Mountains
Tibesti Mt.
Desert of Berdoa
KAWAR or BARABRA
Desert of Selima
Assouan or Syene
Wadan
Tamalma
Balmala
Izer
Desert of Bilmah
Dumboo
Salt Lake of Dumboo
Kanem
KUKU
Kuku
Shab
Mour
Cataract
Selima
Jan
Hamer
Umarah
Pern
Ibrim
Naibet
Ardhab
Belad Arabi
Sukkot
Sai I.
Tinare
Saour
Moschos
Hanedak
Baaker
Dongola
DONGOLA
Desert of Dumoked
Haur
CHAIGYE
Korti
Ameur
Desert of Bahiouda
TAKAKY
Bir el Malha
Goos
Ras Aseeb
Attui
Kottocomb
Bornou
DAR BORNOU
DAR BAGHERMI
Capital of Baghermi
DAR BERGGO
Emeondi
Wara
Abu Sewen
Burket el Rumlie
Sherrarib
Medauso
Durh
Dar Runga
Bahr el Salamat
Bahr Wullad Rashid
Jebel Marra
Abu Herreis
Dar Toomuske
Dar Mara
Dar es Said
Dar Fungaro
Jubeldie
DARFUR
Cubeahea
Coobe
Gimmer
Sweina
Abu Shaved
Jebel Meidob
Bahr el Meidob
Bahr Hemad
Bahr Tenge
Desert
Bahr Luncher
Bahr Dwi
Bar Chauzi
DAR KULLA a small Negro Kingdom
Villages
Bahr Kulla
NEGROES
Dar Kulla
Manoari
Biteish
Dominion of a Prince called IBBE
KORDOFAN
Copper Mines
Source of the Nile
Mountains of the Moon
Gebel Kumri
Bahr el Abiad or White River
Derreira
Gerri
Emdurman
Khandi
Halleia
Halliqon
Le Haimer
Rahad R.
Harbagi
Abu
Gesim
Girana
Shilluk
Alleis
Ibeit
Hellet
Sennaar
SENNAAR
Mandera
Arum
Derbeta
Irkeeko
Bisans
Kandal
Belul
TIGRE
Gondar
Dembea
Source
Bahr Azrac or Blue River
Bahr Dender R.
R. Mateg
FAZILCO
ABYSSINIA
Afsab
Babelmandel
Hanaze R.
BALI
Hawash R.
Goodervo
Fatigar
Gonea
Cassa
Bosham
Zebee R.
GINGIRO
ADEL
AJAN
Coast desert and arid
MACHIDAS
Magadoxa
Ahambo
Brava
MARACATOS
Jubo R.
Lamo
Melinda
Pemba
Zanzibar
COAST OF ZANGUEBAR
INDIA
OCEAN
YEMEN
Ghezan
Loheia
C. Israel
Hodeida
Mocha
Musa
Aden
Bogashua
C. Hargiah
Kamaran
Ibrahim
Asker
Kamsida
Hali
Attui
Yambo
Djar
Rabagh
Medina
Judda
Mecca
Asuad
Goots
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THE EASTERN COAST.

Natal.—Delagoa.—MOCARANGA.—*Mozambic, &c.—Adel.*

ON leaving the colonial poſſeſſions, in this direction, firſt appear the Kaffers, or properly Kouſſis, and the Tambookies, beyond whom there is deep obſcurity. What is called the coaſt of Natal is followed by the bay of Delagoa. Further to the north, and oppoſite to the large iſle of Madagaſcar, are Sabia, Sofala, and Mocaranga, regions better known from Portugueſe narratives. The coaſts of Mozambico and Zanguebar, on the laſt of which is the city of Melinda viſited by Vaſco de Gama, are ſucceeded by the deſert and obſcure coaſts of Ajan and Adel; the laſt bordering on Abyſſinia, and completing the circuit of Africa.

Of the bay of Delagoa, and the adjacent country, an account has recently been given; and it is frequently viſited by veſſels employed in the Southern whale fiſhery.* One of the chief rivers which enters the bay is the Mafumo: and the natives on the northern and ſouthern banks follow diſtinct cuſtoms, the men on the former wearing ſingular helmets of ſtraw. On the ſouthern ſide are fourteen chiefs, ſubject to a king called Capelleh, whoſe dominions extend about 200 miles inland, and about 100 on the ſea ſhore, computed by the natives in days' journies of twenty miles each. Cattle and poultry are abundant, and Delagoa.

Houſouanas under the tropic. The camelopardalis he found in lat. 27°, the rhinoceros in 25. Perhaps there may be jealouſy on one ſide, as well as exaggeration on the other.

The Nemakas are mentioned by Dapper and Ogilby, who add the Houſakas, certainly the Houſouanas of Vaillant; but as modern philoſophers never read, they of courſe make many diſcoveries. The ſame learned author, Firſt journey, ii. 145, quotes Pliny and Herodotus, for ſome account of the Hottentots! There is no danger from learning; but that from reaſoning ignorance is very great. The ancient philoſophers were men of learning; the modern too often men of conſummate ignorance; and we all know and feel the evil effects of the ignorance of Rouſſeau, to inſtance a ſolitary example.

* White's Journal of a Voyage from Madras, &c. 1800, 4to.

Delagoa. may be purchaſed for a trifle; the favourite articles being blue linens, old cloaths, braſs rings, copper wire, large glaſs beads, tobacco, pipes, &c. The fiſh are numerous, and excellent; and turtle is taken on Deer Iſland. The ſoil a rich black mould, ſown with rice or maize in December or January; the dry ſeaſon laſting from April till October. There are many fruit trees and uſeful plants, particularly the ſugar-cane; but no horſes, aſſes, nor buffaloes. The wild animals are the tiger, rhinoceros, antelope, hare, rabbit, wild hog, with Guinea hens, partridges, quails, wild geeſe, ducks, and ſome ſmall ſinging birds. The natives are Kaffers, that is pagans, of a bright black colour, tall and ſtout, go nearly naked, and are tatooed. They are a good humoured and harmleſs people, and fond of excurſions on the river, there being what is called a king of the water, only yielding in power to Capelleh. Like the reſt of Africa, the country is not populous; and Mr. White ſuppoſes that the inhabitants around this large bay may be from ſix to ten thouſand.

Mocaranga. The moſt civilized and powerful kingdom ſeems to be that of Mocaranga, abſurdly called Monomotapa,* which has been ſtyled an extenſive

* This is the appellation of the monarchs, not of the kingdom. The Cuama or Zambezi, a large river, encircles the kingdom on the W. and N. the larger or weſtern part is ſtyled Mocaranga, the eaſtern Botonga. See D'Anville's map of Africa, 1749. Sofala and Sabia are conſidered as parts of this monarchy. The king's reſidence was at Zimbao, about 240 miles inland. The accounts of Mocaranga are very imperfect when compared even with thoſe of Congo, being derived from the general Portugueſe hiſtorians, Barros and Faria, with Marmol, Linſchoten and Oſorio. Vincent Le Blanc is not a credible traveller, but his ſtory of Alfondi is well told. See Modern Univerſal Hiſtory, vol. xv. edit. 1760. The remarkable hiſtory of Zinga, queen of Angola, is from Cavazzi.

M. le Grand, in his diſſertations annexed to Lobo's voyage to Abyſſinia, has extracted an account of Mocaranga, &c. from the *Ethiopia Oriental* of John dos Santos, a Dominican, printed at Evora, 1609. The great river Zambezi is ſaid by the natives to riſe in a vaſt lake, and to receive its name from a village not far from its ſource. It is very rapid, and in ſome places a league in breadth: at thirty leagues diſtance from the ſea it divides into two branches called Luabo (the Suabo is a river which falls into the Zambezi), and the Guilimane, or river of Welcome Tokens, becauſe Vaſco de Gama there erected a ſtone pillar. The Delta conſiſts of five mouths; but the Luabo is the chief ſtream, and is navigated as far as the kingdom of Sicambé, above Teté, where there is a cataract of ſtupendous height; and rocky rapids for 20 leagues to the kingdom of Chicoua, and the ſilver mines. The Zambezi inundates the country like the Nile; but in the month of April. From Maſſapa in Mocaranga, which is the chief kingdom of the Monomotapa or

tenſive empire, while the whole of Africa would not form an empire, equal to the Ruſſian, and would certainly be found inferior in population. The ſoil of this country is ſaid to be fertile, though the plains be expoſed to great heat; while the mountains called Lupata, or the Spine of the World, form a great chain ſtretching from N. to S. covered with perpetual ſnow. The people are almoſt naked: and, like thoſe of the weſtern coaſt, ſuperſtitiouſly afraid of magical charms. According to the doubtful accounts of this country, the king, on days of ceremony, wears a little ſpade hanging by his ſide, as an emblem of cultivation. The children of the great are retained at court as hoſtages: and the king ſends annually an officer to the provinces, when the people teſtify their fidelity by extinguiſhing their fires, and kindling others from the officer's torch. There are ſeveral queens, one of whom was protectreſs of the Portugueſe, and another of the Moors. The emperor's guard is ſaid to conſiſt of women lightly armed. The Portugueſe have here two fortreſſes, and another ſtation near the mountains of Fura, which are ſaid to abound in gold. It is to be regretted, that they do not publiſh accounts of their African ſettlements, which would be extremely intereſting in the obſcure geography of that continent; but they are of all nations the moſt illiterate, and the moſt determined enemies of their own celebrity. MOCARANGA.

The Moors or Arabs are eſtabliſhed in conſiderable numbers on the coaſts of Ajan and Zanguebar, and ſeem to have invented the term of *Kafraria*, for in the Arabic *Kafre* ſignifies an unbeliever; whence the appellation, as being wholly vague and uncertain, ſhould be diſmiſſed from geography.*

Emperor, great quantities of gold are brought, being found in the neighbourhood of the vaſt mountain Fura or Afura; where it is ſaid that there are ruins of edifices built with ſtone and lime, while even the modern palaces are only conſtructed of wood and clay, covered with briars. Fura is 200 leagues from the ſea. The foreſt of Thebé, on a river of the ſame name, affords trees of wonderful beauty and magnitude. Amber is ſaid to abound on the coaſt (ambergris?) and there is a fiſhery for pearls near the iſlands of Bocicas. Dos Santos argues that this was the Ophir of the ancients. As to Tarſhiſh, the word in Scripture ſometimes merely implies the ocean, Atlantic or Indian; but in other paſſages ſeems as clearly to denote Tarteſſus near Cadiz in Spain.

* It is probable there may be recent Arabian deſcriptions of Africa, which ought to be ſedulouſly enquired after, as the Moors are intimately acquainted with the greater part of that continent. The Kaffers, ſo called in the ſouth, ought to be diſtinguiſhed by their native name Kouſſi, Barlow, 219; and they cannot even pronounce the word *Kaffer*.

The

Mosambic. The kingdom of Mozambique or Mozambico is conſidered as ſubject to the Portugueſe, who had a conſiderable town of the ſame name, ſituated in an iſle, the governor being dependent on the viceroy of Goa.* Zanguebar is ſaid to be a marſhy and unhealthy country, but abundant in elephants: it is chiefly inhabited by the Mocuas, partly pagans, partly mahometans. The little kingdom of Quiloa is alſo dependent on the Portugueſe, with that of Mombaza, from which they were expelled in 1631, but regained their poſſeſſions in 1729. Melinda, a mahometan ſtate, is alſo partly dependent on the Portugueſe, who have a fortreſs in the city, and ſeveral churches. The coaſt of Ajan is chiefly mahometan; and carries on a conſiderable trade in ivory, ambergris, and gold. Brava, a little ariſtocracy, pays tribute to the Portugueſe, who have not been able to encroach on Magadaſho, or on
Adel. the kingdom of Adel, which laſt was dependent on Abyſſinia, and is ſaid to be a fertile country. This ſtate was founded by a mahometan prince, at the beginning of the ſixteenth century; the capital being Auzagurel, ſtanding on an eminence near the river Hawaſh, which comes from Abyſſinia: and Zeila, on the Arabian gulf, is a conſiderable port.

THE ISLE OF MADAGASCAR.

THIS noble iſland is about 840 g. miles in length, by about 220 of medial breadth, being eſteemed one of thelargeſt in the world, though ſeemingly exceeded by Papua, and ſtill more by New Holland, if the latter muſt be claſſed among iſlands. It ſeems to have been unknown to the ancients, for Ptolemy's geography of eaſtern Africa appears to

* Dapper ſay- that this town was even ſupplied with rice, wheat, and other proviſions, from Goa.

terminate

terminate with the iſle of Pemba, probably his Menuthias, he being a ſtranger to the iſlands of Zanzibar and Monſia, with the iſlands of Comoro. His Cape Praſum is probably ſome head-land, a little further to the ſouth, diſcovered at a diſtance by ſome ſhip navigating theſe ſeas. However this be, the firſt certain mention of Madagaſcar is by Marco Polo, in the thirteenth century, who deſcribes it by its preſent name, having received his knowledge from the Arabs[1]. Among other ſingularities, he mentions that large bird which is called ruc by the Arabs, and by the moderns the condor. It would ſeem that the Mahometan religion had made ſome progreſs: but the diſcoveries of the Arabs in Aſia and Africa form an important object in geography, which deſerves to be inveſtigated by ſome writer eminently verſed in oriental lore.

This iſland appears to have eſcaped the notice of Gama, who coaſted along the African ſhore; and is ſaid to have been diſcovered in 1506, by Lorenzo Almida, whence perhaps it is called the iſle of St. Lawrence. The French navigators in the reign of Henry IV. called it Iſle Dauphin; and the latter ingenious people having repeatedly ſettled here, it becomes perſpicuous from the accounts of their writers, while the Portugueſe ſettlements remain in comparative darkneſs. Rochon[2] informs us that this iſland may contain about two hundred millions of acres of excellent land, watered by rivers and rivulets, from a long chain of mountains paſſing in the direction of the iſland, and ſeparating the eaſtern from the weſtern coaſt, but approaching nearer to the former. The two higheſt mountains are Vigagora in the N. and Botiſtmeni in the S. The ſcenery is ſtrikingly grand and picturesque, diverſified with precipices, cataracts, and immenſe foreſts. The flax, from the deſcription, ſeems to approach that of New Zealand; other products are, ſugar canes, cocoa nuts, bananas, tobacco, indigo, pepper, gum lacca, benzoin, amber, ambergris, &c. and the variety of valuable plants is prodigious. Cattle, buffaloes, and ſheep abound. There are no lions, tigers, elephants, nor horſes. Many of the moſt valuable

[1] Lib. iii. cap. 39.

[2] Voyage to Madagaſcar, 1792, 8vo.

minerals occur, among which are beds of pure rock cryſtal, often uſed for optical purpoſes, and erroneouſly ſtyled Brazil pebble*, and it is ſaid three kinds of gold ore, with topazes, ſapphires, emeralds, and ſpotted jaſpers, commonly called blood ſtones. The natives are rather above the middle ſtature, and are of various origins; ſome being negroes, others tawney or copper coloured; but the complexion of the greater part is olive; and it would ſeem that the Arabs, in very early times, penetrated very far into Africa, eſpecially if the Kouſſis or Kaffers above the Cape of Good Hope be of Arabian extract, as Mr. Barrow inſinuates; a topic of curious enquiry, which might lead to new views of African population and manners. Rochon ſhews that propenſity for ſavages which has recently diſgraced French writers, and of which it is to be preſumed the nation is radically cured, the bleeding having been proportioned to the fever. His arguments prove that ſavages are happy, becauſe they have no care, nor forethought, which is very true, and ſo is every brute animal. The French ſettlement of Fort Dauphin is in the S. E. extremity of the iſland, and the French are chiefly acquainted with the ſouthern part. Almoſt all the villages are built upon eminences, and ſurrounded by two rows of ſtrong paliſades, within which there is a parapet of earth, four feet in height; and ſometimes there is a ditch, ten feet in breadth and ſix in depth. Their chiefs are only known by their red caps, worn by the common Moors; and of which there is a noted manufacture at Tunis. Their authority is inconſiderable, yet they are ſometimes regarded as proprietors of the land, and receive a ſmall quit-rent. Writing is not unknown, and there are ſome hiſtorical books in the native tongues; but their learned men whom they call *ombiaſes* uſe only the Arabic characters. In the province of Matatan are many magicians, greatly dreaded by the ignorant natives. The paper is made of papyrus, which the Madagaſſes call ſangaſanga; and the ink is the decoction of a certain bark. The whole iſland is ſaid to have been conquered by the Arabs about three hundred years

* It is quarried in huge blocks near the bay of Antongil, and alſo in the mountains of Ambotiſmenes in the northern part of the iſle. Rochon, p. 347.

ago:

ago: but their firſt ſettlements here and in ſouthern Africa, may be nearly as ancient as thoſe in Abyſſinia, and of Mahometaniſm there are only faint traces. From the account of Rochon the traditions of many tribes point to a very early Arabian origin. The nobles are ſtyled Roandrians: and the Anacandri are deſcended from thoſe and black women. The native blacks are claſſed as deſcendants of the ancient chiefs, and preſerve their right of killing animals, uſurped in other caſes by the Roandrians, who regard the profeſſion of a butcher as the moſt honourable. The next claſs cannot kill animals, but have ſome privileges unknown to the Ontzoa or third caſt. The Ondeves, or *loſt men*, are ſlaves by extraction. They ſuppoſe that ſeven women, originally created, were the mothers of the different caſts; and there is a faint but ſingular reſemblance of Hindoo traditions. Are the tawney tribes from Hindoſtan, or have theſe notions ariſen from commerce or intercourſe? Ideas of equality are unknown; and the lower caſts never aſpire to be butchers. Polygamy ſeems confined to the chiefs; the women are lively and chearful, and form the chief delight of their huſbands. The achievements of the French in Madagaſcar have been detailed by many of their writers, from Flacourt to Rochon. The moſt ſingular perhaps is that of the Poliſh adventurer Benyowſky, who, pretending to eſtabliſh an independent power among the natives, was attacked by a detachment ſent from the Iſle of France, and ſlain on the 23d of May, 1786.[3] Few countries in the world are more deſerving to be the ſeats of a powerful independent monarchy.

The knowledge that we have of the plants of Madagaſcar is chiefly derived from a few French authors; of theſe Flacourt is the principal, having given a liſt of three or four hundred. Unfortunately however he mentions only their native names, and deſcribes them by fancied reſemblances in their forms or medical properties to thoſe of Europe. Hence the greater part are wholly unintelligible, nor is it without

[3] See his Memoirs, London, 1790, two vols. 4to, v. ii. p. 93, &c. and Rochon's Madagaſcar, p 253. The laſt author, p. 164, gives a curious account of the Kimos, a nation of dwarfs, living amidſt inacceſſible rocks.

Botany. ſome heſitation that we give the few following Linnæan ſpecies, as probably included in the catalogue of the above-mentioned author.

Of eſculent plants there are the rice, banana, yam, nymphæa lotos, ſeveral kinds of dolichos or kidney bean, gourds and water-melons, and cocoa nuts. The fruits are pine apples, tamarinds, oranges, and pomegranates. The ſpices and other condiments are common and betel pepper, ginger, turmeric, cinnamon, and ſugar. The Indian fig grows here, as alſo does the ebony, the bamboo, the cotton, and indigo.

A few Madagaſcar plants have been obtained of late years, of which the only ſpecies intereſting to the general reader are the Mauritanian mulberry with green fruit, and the gummiphora Madagaſcarienſis, whoſe juice concretes into an elaſtic gum exactly ſimilar to the caoutchouc of Cayenne.

THE SMALLER AFRICAN ISLANDS.

Pemba.—Comoro.—Mauritius and Bourbon.—Kerguelen's Land.—St. Helena.—Aſcenſion.—Cape Verd Iſlands.—Canaries.—Madeira.

THESE ſhall be traced from the eaſtern coaſt towards the weſt. Thoſe in the Red Sea are too minute for general geography; and the iſle of Socotra has already been deſcribed under Arabia, to which it belongs. The iſlands of Pemba, Zanzibar, and Monſia, are oppoſite to the coaſt of Zanguebar. Pemba is ſaid to be about 100 miles in circumference, governed by a king, who pays tribute to Portugal; to which power the two others are alſo ſaid to be ſubſervient. At a conſiderable diſtance to the eaſt are the iſles of Mahé and Almiranti, interſperſed with many rocks, and of ſmall account.

Pemba, &c.

Comoro. The iſlands of Comoro are four in number, of conſiderable ſize, particularly Angaziza, or the greater Comoro. That of Anzoan*

* This iſle, alſo called Henzuan, Juhanna, is elegantly deſcribed by Sir William Jones in a paper inſerted in the Aſiatic Reſearches. It is peopled by Arabs.

has a convenient harbour, ſometimes viſited by ſhips paſſing to India. Theſe iſles are governed by Pagan or Mahometan chieftains, tributary to the Portugueſe; and are reported to be very fertile in rice, oranges, lemons, ſugar, cocoa, and ginger, the natives carrying on ſome trade with the Portugueſe of Mozambico. The domeſtic animals reſemble the European. Comoro.

To the eaſt of Madagaſcar are the Iſlands of Mauritius or France, and Bourbon, French ſettlements well known in the commercial world.* The Iſle of France has a tolerable port, the centre of the oriental force and commerce of the French. The Iſle of Bourbon, colonized in 1654, is about fifty leagues in circumference, of a circular form, riſing to high mountains in the centre; and there is a noted volcano, difficult of acceſs, at the ſummit of a mountain a league from the ſea: the eruptions are frequent and continual. Mauritius, or the Iſle of France, was firſt poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who abandoned it in 1712, and the French ſettlement began to acquire ſome ſtability under Bourdonnais in 1734. There are two crops every year of wheat and Indian corn, but manioc was the food of the negroes. The Iſle of Bourbon produces ſugar-canes; and in both the cattle are numerous. In 1766, M. Poivre, author of the Voyage of a Philoſopher, was governor of theſe iſles, and the advantages of appointing men of ſcience to ſuch ſtations was evident from his introduction of the bread-fruit tree, and alſo of the nutmeg and cinnamon.† Mauritius and Bourbon.

Far to the ſouth lies Kerguelen's Land, ſo called from a recent French navigator; but by Captain Cook the Iſle of Deſolation. This region muſt be claſſed among the African iſlands, as it approaches nearer to that continent than to Auſtralaſia, which may however claim the ſmall iſlands of Amſterdam and St. Paul, only frequented on account of the Kerguelen's Land.

* A prolix hiſtory of Mauritius was publiſhed in 1801, by Charles Grant Viſcount de Vaux. The Iſle of Bourbon has been lately called *Reunion*.

† See Rochon's Introduction to his Voyage to Madagaſcar, in which he pretends to point out ſome miſtakes of M. d'Aprés, the celebrated hydrographer of the Eaſtern ſhores. To the north of theſe iſles are ſeveral ſhoals. The iſle of Seychelle, one of the Almirantes, is well wooded, but only inhabited by tortoiſes and alligators: the French formed there a ſmall eſtabliſhment for the cultivation of nutmegs and cloves. The remote iſle of Diego Garcia is, by our author's account, in the form of a horſe ſhoe; and there is a good haven. Ib. liii.

Kerguelen's Land.

ſeal fiſhery. Kerguelen's Land is deſcribed and delineated in the laſt voyage of Cook, to which the curious reader is referred. In wildneſs, and iron-bound ſterility, it rivals New Georgia, and the ſouthern Thule. Proceeding towards the weſt are ſeveral other deſert iſlands ſurrounded with the floating ice of the antarctic ocean, and chiefly diſcovered by Marion in 1772. That of Triſtan da Cunha is unknown to recent accounts.

St. Helena.

The ſouth is here the region of cold and deſolation, and on proceeding towards the north the ſcene improves. St. Helena is a beautiful iſland, poſſeſſed by about three hundred Engliſh families, the governor reſiding in a fort with a ſmall garriſon. There is a village, with a church, in Chapel valley. The planters are occupied with their cattle, hogs, and poultry; but when Eaſt India ſhips arrive each houſe becomes a little tavern. This intereſting iſle was diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who ſtocked it with animals and fruit trees; but there was no ſettlement when the Engliſh took poſſeſſion about the year 1600. There is only one harbour, which is difficult of acceſs. The iſle of Aſcenſion, between Africa and Brazil, was diſcovered in 1508; and has an excellent harbour, frequented by homeward bound ſhips, who here find turtle and ſea-fowl. This iſland is of conſiderable ſize, but mountainous, and the ſoil a barren ſand.

Aſcenſion.

St. Thomas, &c.

On approaching the African ſhore, to the north of Congo, and paſſing the neglected iſle of St. Matthew, where the Portugueſe have a ſmall ſettlement, firſt appears the iſle of Annabon, followed by St. Thomas, Prince's Iſle, and that of Fernando Po. The Iſle of St. Thomas was diſcovered by the Portugueſe about 1460, and ſettled by them in deſpite of the climate, which is foggy and ſingularly unhealthy. But the ſoil is remarkably ſtrong and fertile, domeſtic animals abound, and the produce of ſugar is prodigious. There is a biſhop, who is a ſuffragan of Liſbon. The town Pavoacan is on the eaſtern ſide of the iſland. Prince's Iſland is alſo fertile, with a good harbour, and a town of about two hundred houſes on the northern ſhore: it is inhabited by about forty Portugueſe and 3000 negro ſlaves. Fernando Po ſeems deſtitute of any good harbour, and abandoned to the goats and ſeals; but the Spaniards retain the nominal poſſeſſion.

Several

Several other ſmall iſles ariſe on the African ſhore *; and it is probable that in ancient periods theſe were ſtill more numerous, but the ſand, which has blocked up many of the rivers, muſt have united the iſlands, particularly at their mouths, with the continent. The firſt diſtinguiſhed group in this quarter is that oppoſite to Cape Verd, whence it has received its name. Theſe iſles were diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1446. They are ten in number, the two largeſt being that of St. Jago in the S. E. and St. Anthony in the N. W. The air is hot and unhealthy; and moſt of the iſles ſtony and barren; the chief trade being in ſalt, and goat ſkins. Some produce rice, maiz, bananas, lemons, oranges, citrons, with cotton, and ſugar canes; and there is abundance of poultry. Ribira, the chief town and biſhopric, is in St. Jago.

Cape Verd Iſlands.

Far to the north the Canary Iſlands, or Fortunate Iſlands of the ancients, form an intereſting range from weſt to eaſt. They were conquered by the French in 1402 under the celebrated Jean de Bethencourt, afterwards ſtyled king of the Canaries †. The iſle ſtrictly called Canary is ſmaller than Fuerta Ventura, and Tenerif. The latter is the moſt remarkable, deriving its name, according to Glas, from *thener*, a mountain, and *if*, white. In the recent aſtronomical voyage of Verdun de la Crenne there is an accurate account of the Peak of Tenerif, which was found 1742 toiſes above the level of the ſea, or about 5000 feet lower than Mont Blanc. It is ſaid to be viſible at the diſtance of *eighty* leagues ‡. This celebrated mountain cannot be aſcended, on account of the ſnows, except from the middle of July to the end of Auguſt. Firſt occur pumices, interſperſed with obſidian of beautiful and various colours, followed by broken lava. The ſummit reſembles a cone placed on a table, or rather ſmall baſe; and can only be aſcended by a zig-zag path on the ſouth. The cold is extreme; the nails be-

Canary Iſlands.

Peak of Tenerif.

* Among theſe may be mentioned the Biſſagos, and the little iſle of Goree, a ſettlement ſheltered by the bold prominence of Cape Verd.

† Hiſtoire de la premiere decouverte et conqueſte des Canaries: faite dés l'an 1402 par Meſſire Jean de Bethencourt, Chambellan du Roy Charles VI. Eſcrite du temps meſme par F. Pierre Bontier Religieux de S. François, et Jean le Verrier, Preſtre, domeſtiques dudit Sieur de Bethencourt. Paris 1630, 8vo. See alſo Glas's Hiſtory of the Canary Iſlands; London, 1764, 4to.

‡ Tome i. p. 121: ſuppoſing the height to be 1742 toiſes, the ſummit might be viſible at ſea at the diſtance of 35 leagues.

come

Canaries. come black, and the hands and feet ſwell. In the middle of the ſummit is a deep reverſed cone, called the cauldron, about fifty fathoms in diameter, and bordered with hideous calcined rocks, moſtly red or white, the perpendicular depth being about 150 feet: at the bottom are perceivable reddiſh ſpots, upon a kind of white earth like plaſter, and mingled with ſulphur, which is ſometimes ſo volatile as to evaporate from paper, and if folded up will eſcape after burning the paper and the pocket. Around are many little mouths, from one to four inches in diameter, which at ſhort intervals reſpire, as it were, a thick hot fetid ſmoke. The largeſt hole, about eight inches in diameter, is within the crater, exhaling with a ſound like the bellowing of a bull; and the ſmoke is ſo hot as inſtantly to burn the hair of the hand. Yet the rocks immediately adjoining are covered with wet moſs, like thoſe by the ſide of a caſcade. On deſcending about mid-way is viſited a cave in the midſt of the lava, which ſeems to pierce a conſiderable depth, and to be paved with ice, above which are about two feet and a half of the pureſt water, but extremely cold: and there ſeems an opening of great depth, at one ſide of the cave, through which it is ſaid ſome animals aſcend to drink the water. In winter this cave is blocked up; and the ſummit is covered with a thick ſnow reſembling poliſhed ſilver.

The ancient inhabitants of the Canaries were called Guanches by the Spaniards, and were ſtrangers to the uſe of iron, their weapons and inſtruments being of what they called *tabona*, or black obſidian. The chief trees are wild olives, cypreſſes, laurels, and pines of two kinds. It was reported by Spaniſh writers that there was a tree in the iſle of Ferro which gathered the vapours, ſo that, dropping from the leaves, the inhabitants were thus ſupplied with water. The product of theſe iſlands is wheat, barley, and oats; and the excellent Canary wine is chiefly from Tenerif and Palma, which alſo yield conſiderable quantities of ſugar; while Gomera is noted for ſilk; and the tree yielding the gum called dragon's blood is not uncommon [a]. They have moſt European domeſtic animals. The capital of the ſeven inhabited iſlands

[a] Ibid. 103.

is

is the town of Palma, in the iſle of Canary: but Tenerif is the moſt populous. The inhabitants are computed at 140,000; of whom 64,000 belong to Tenerif, in which iſle the Governor uſually reſides, though the royal audience, of which he is preſident, be eſtabliſhed at the capital of Canary. There is conſiderable internal trade with Tenerif; and the wine is chiefly exported by the Engliſh. Filtering ſtones, from the iſle of Canary, and from Fuerta Ventura, alſo form an article of traffic.

The iſland of Madeira is chiefly remarkable for excellent wines, being about 18 leagues in length by ſeven in breadth [3]. The capital, Funchal, the reſidence of the governor and biſhop, is in a fertile vale, on the ſouth ſide of the iſle, a handſome town, with about eleven thouſand inhabitants, there being about 64,000 in the whole iſland. The chief trade is with the Engliſh, who export about ten or twelve thouſand pipes of wine annually; the remainder, about ſeven thouſand, being conſumed in the country. The richeſt merchants are Engliſh or Iriſh Catholics. The interior conſiſts of high mountains, viſible at the diſtance of twenty leagues. To the N. E. is the ſmall iſle of Porto Santo, only remarkable in the hiſtory of Portugueſe diſcovery. It is however a fertile little iſle, with a good harbour, ſometimes viſited by Eaſt India ſhips *. Madeira.

[3] Voyage de Verdun, i. 58.

* At the diſtance of about nine degrees, or 540 g. miles, to the N. W. are the Iſlands of Azores, a brief deſcription of which ſhould have accompanied that of Portugal, as they properly belong to Europe, being about thirteen degrees from Cape St. Vincent in Portugal, while the African ſhore is more diſtant by at leaſt one degree; and their latitude rather connects them with Europe than with Africa: not to mention that they were firſt peopled by Europeans, and that this portion of the globe is too ſmall to abandon any appendage.

The chief iſles of the Azores are St. Michel, Tercera, Pico or the Peak, and Fayal, with two ſmaller far in the weſt called Florez and Corvo. Theſe iſles were all diſcovered by the Portugueſe before 1449, who gave them the name from the number of goſhawks, which they obſerved here remarkably tame, there being neither man nor quadruped. In 1466 the Portugueſe king gave them to his ſiſter the Ducheſs of Burgundy. They were colonized by Flemings and Germans, among whom was Job de Huerter, father-in-law of the celebrated geographer Martin Behaim, who reſided in Fayal. The ſubſequent hiſtory is rather obſcure; but the Flemiſh inhabitants ſeem to have always acknowledged the king of Portugal. A furious earthquake is ſaid to have been felt here on the 9th July 1757. The Peak has a mountain of remarkable height, by ſome reported to equal that of Tenerif, and which might well be aſſumed as the firſt meridian of longitude, inſtead of the various and confuſed diſtinctions recently adopted. Theſe iſles are generally mountainous, and expoſed to earthquakes, and violent winds; yet they produce wheat, wine, fruits, and abundance of woad. The chief is Tercera (whence they are ſometimes ſtyled Terceras)

DISCOVERIES, AND CONJECTURES, CONCERNING THE CENTRAL PARTS OF AFRICA.

HAVING completed this arduous circumnavigation of the globe, and arrived on the confines of Europe, whence the deſcription firſt proceeded, one topic yet remains, which has conſiderably intereſted public curioſity. The interior parts of Africa preſent many geographical deficiencies, both in the northern and ſouthern parts of that wide continent. The patronage of the African Society has already contributed greatly to the increaſe of our knowledge, not only by collecting recent oriental intelligence, but by exciting various travellers, particularly Mr. Park, to the accompliſhment of this grand deſign; and though theſe laudable efforts have not been attended with all the effect that might have been wiſhed, yet the preciſion of modern knowledge begins to dawn; and it is to be hoped that the travels of Mr. Hornemann will importantly tend to remove the remaining defects. The materials hitherto preſented have been uſed with care by that celebrated geographer Major Rennell, whoſe ſucceſſion of maps of the northern part of Africa, from 1790 to 1800, form of themſelves curious ſpecimens of

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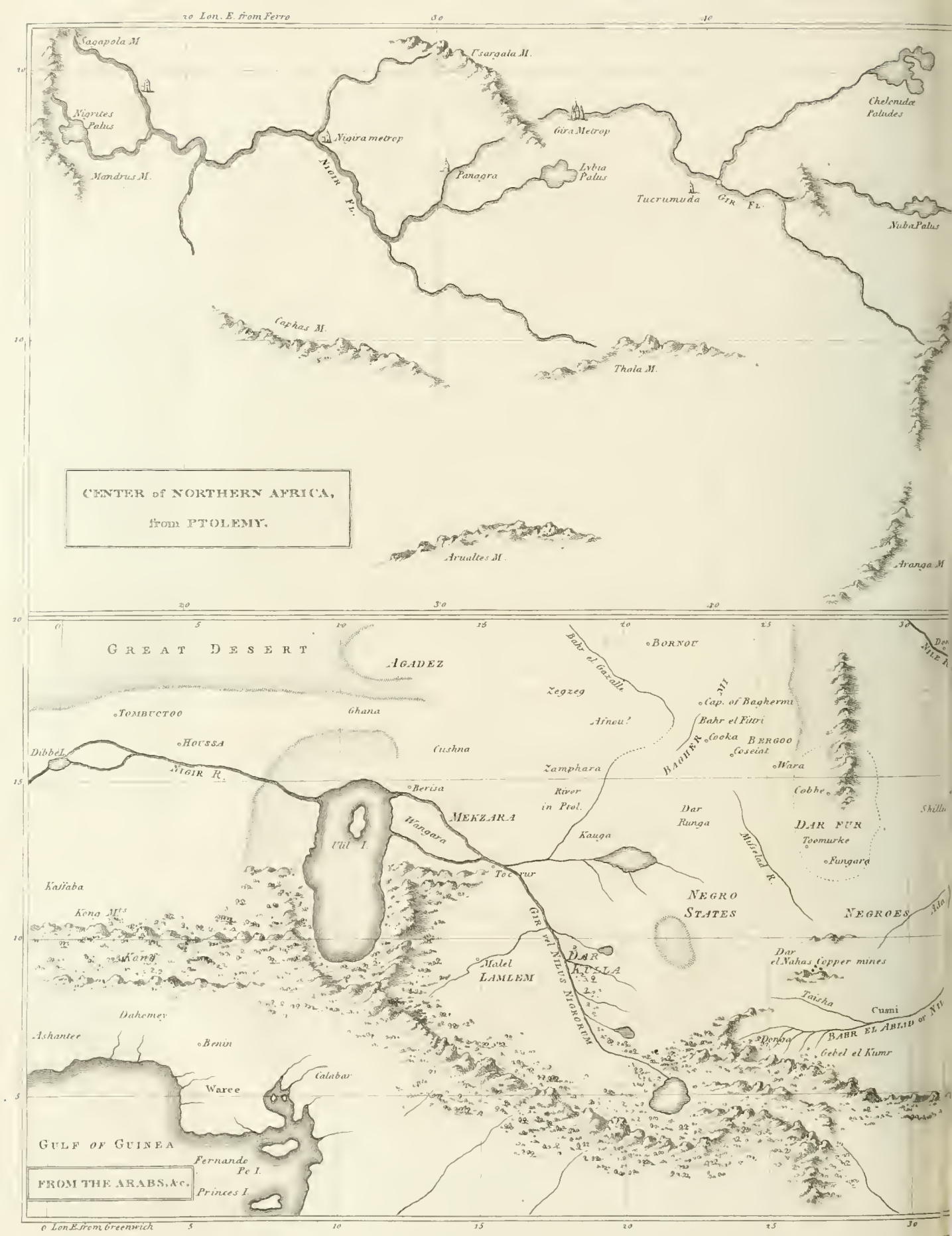
ceras) being 15 leagues in circumference. The capital town is Angra, on the S. E. ſide of Tercera, with a harbour defended by a fortreſs, in which reſides the governor of the Azores. Angra is a biſhopric with ſome handſome churches, particularly that of the Cordeliers; and there are two other monaſteries and four nunneries.

One of the lateſt accounts of the Azores is that given by M. Adanſon, who viſited them on his return from Senegal, 1753. He ſays that the Peak is about half a league in perpendicular height: and that iſle produces excellent wine. The harbour of Fayal preſents a beautiful amphitheatre cloathed with trees; the town has 5000 inhabitants, but may be ſaid to conſiſt of convents: the governor is ſtyled *Capitan mor*. The climate and ſoil are excellent, there being no occaſion for fire in the winter. The trees are walnuts, chefnuts, white poplars, and particularly the arbutus or ſtrawberry tree, whence the name, for Fayal in the Portugueſe implies a ſtrawberry. Cattle, &c. abound: yet almoſt the only birds are a kind of blackbirds ſpeckled with white. Fayal is rather mountainous, and there is a volcano near the centre, but the laſt eruption was 1672. It is to be regretted that theſe intereſting iſles, like all other Portugueſe ſettlements, are almoſt unknown.



Arrowsmith direxit

Published March 1st 1802, by Cadell and Davies, Strand, and Longman and Rees, Paternoster Row

the uncertainty of the ſubject, of the variations in the author's ideas, and of the progreſs of African geography. Suffice it to obſerve, that in his map of 1790 Rennell marks the Nigir as paſſing by Tombuctoo to the weſt; while in D'Anville's map 1749, and in his ancient geography 1769, the Nigir is ſpecially mentioned as running from the weſt to the eaſt, and he dwells on the paſſage of Herodotus to that effect, which was afterwards illuſtrated by Rennell. But geography is often retrograde; and D'Anville's map 1749, the aſpect of which is chiefly derived from Ptolemy, was certainly a better delineation of central Africa than Rennell's in 1790, or even 1800. Several theories have been recently ſtarted by various writers, but the French geographer was a decided enemy to theory, which in geography is worſe than ignorance itſelf; as it not only neglects the practical knowledge already acquired, but impedes the progreſs of diſcovery by a falſe ſemblance of ſcience, not to mention the inconvenience, and ſometimes fatal riſk, that travellers may encounter in purſuit of this wild-fire. Such theories are often raiſed on mathematical evidence, built upon the ſandy foundation of erroneous reports, haſty routes, and oriental inaccuracies. On ſuch occaſions mathematical calculations become as heterogeneous as in biſhop Huet's Demonſtration; and the beſt arguments are thoſe from plain deduction, ariſing from ſtriking features, and probable circumſtances. Hence it follows that the beſt and moſt exact geographers (where the materials are aſtronomical and preciſe) will, if they attempt to build theories, wander the fartheſt from the truth.

The travels of Mr. Browne, merely to ſatisfy his own curioſity, and his fondneſs for oriental manners, have alſo contributed moſt eſſentially to our knowledge of northern Africa, not only by the geography of Darfur and Kordofan, but by aſcertaining the origin and progreſs of the Bahr el Abiad, or real Nile; and by diſcloſing ſeveral circumſtances towards the weſt, particularly a large river riſing in the mountains of Kumri, and proceeding N. W. which ſeems to be the Gir of Ptolemy, and the Nile of the Negroes of Edriſi. It needs ſcarcely be added that as the ſource of the Nile, and the river running N. W. are ſtriking features of Ptolemy's map, there is reaſon to infer that his intelligence deſerves in other reſpects great credit.

It is unneceſſary to remind the reader that all the recent information aſſiſted by that of Ptolemy, will only throw a faint light on the northern half of this wide continent, as far as the central ridge of Kong, continued in a N. W. and S. E. direction acroſs to the mountains of Kumri, and thoſe on the ſouth of Abyſſinia, perhaps extending to Ajan on the eaſtern ſhore. The interior of the ſouthern half of this great continent will remain a theme equally intereſting, and ſtill more unknown. In proceeding firſt to give ſome idea of the diſcoveries and conjectures concerning the northern half, it will be proper to begin with aſcertaining where the light of diſcovery terminates.

From the travels of Mr. Park, and the map conſtructed by Rennell, it appears that three great rivers, the Gambia, Senegal, and Joliba or Nigir, riſe from a chain of lofty mountains, N. lat. 11°; and as Browne lays down the mountains of Kumri, which give ſource to the Nile and Bahr Kulla, in N. lat. 7°, it ſeems ſufficiently evident that this grand chain proceeds acroſs the continent, eſpecially as it was obſerved by Mr. Park as far as he penetrated. This enterprizing and ingenious traveller * purſued the courſe of the Joliba from long. 5° 30′ W. of Greenwich to Silla, long. 1° 30′ the utmoſt extent of his expedition. Not to mention curious and intereſting information concerning the manners, and preſent ſtate, of the countries, through which he paſſed, we are indebted to Mr. Park for the Mooriſh kingdom of Ludamar, where he was detained at Benowm, and for another called Beeroo, the capital of which is Walet, while to the E. is the celebrated kingdom of Tombuctoo. To the S. of theſe are the negro kingdoms of Kaarta and Bambarra, the capital of the laſt being Sego; beyond which, about 70 g. miles to the N. E. is Silla. The chief geographical objects in Mr. Park's route are the river Joliba, and the town of Sego. The word *Joliba* ſignifies the Great Water; and when this river was firſt deſcried by our traveller, it was flowing ſlowly to the eaſtward, and glittering to the morning ſun, with an expanſe as broad as the Thames at Weſt-

Park's route. Sego.

* The narrative of his journey was written by the late Bryan Edwards. See Sir William Young's Advertiſement to the third volume of that ingenious author's Hiſtory of the Weſt Indies, 1801, 4to.

minſter

minſter [1]. He ſoon after arrived at Sego, the capital of Bambarra, which conſiſts of four diviſions, ſurrounded with high mud walls; two on the north ſide of the river, and two on the ſouthern. The houſes are in a ſquare form, with flat roofs: they are of clay, ſome have two ſtories many are white waſhed. Several moſks alſo appear; yet the ſtreets are narrow, wheel carriages being unknown. The inhabitants are computed at 30,000, but ſuch calculations are uſually exaggerated. The king reſides on the ſouthern ſhore: and people are ferried in canoes, conſiſting of two large hollowed trees joined at the ends. Around is a ſlender cultivation: and theſe mud walls and canoes are called African magnificence. PARK'S ROUTE.

In Ludamar Mr. Park learned, from a ſheref who arrived with ſalt and ſome other articles from Walet, the capital of Beeroo, that Houſſa was the largeſt town he had ſeen, Walet being larger than Tombuctoo [2]. At Silla Mr. Park collected intelligence from the Mooriſh and Negro traders, who informed him that two days' journey to E. is the town of Jenne, ſituated on an iſlet in the river; beyond which, at the diſtance of two days, is the Dibbi or Dark lake, in croſſing which from W. to E. the canoes are ſaid to loſe ſight of land for an entire day [3]. From this lake the river iſſues in ſeveral ſtreams, terminating in two large branches, which join at Kabra, one day's journey S. of Tombuctoo, and the port of that city or town. At the diſtance of eleven days from Kabra, the river paſſes to the ſouthward of Houſſa, which is two days' journey diſtant from the Joliba. "Of the further progreſs of this great river and its final exit, all the natives with whom I converſed ſeem to be entirely ignorant [4]." To the eaſtward of Houſſa is the kingdom of Kaſſina. The preſent king of Tombuctoo is named Abu Abrahima, and is ſaid to be rich, his wives and concubines cloathed in ſilk. The kingdom of Houſſa is of ſuperior conſequence. To the S. of the Nigir were mentioned the kingdoms, or rather diſtricts of Gotto; to the W. of which are Baëdoo and Maniana, the inhabitants of the laſt being reported cannibals. So far Mr. Park's intelligence in the weſt, which terminates with Houſſa about E. long. from Greenwich 4°.

[1] P. 291, 8vo. [2] P. 210. [3] P 317. [4] P. 319.

Browne's Journey.

On the eaſtern ſide Mr. Browne's intelligence extends to long. 17°; ſo that there is a deficiency of thirteen degrees or 780 g. miles; but this ſpace unfortunately compriſes the moſt intereſting portion of northern Africa, and eſpecially the termination of the Nigir: and to the N. W. of Darfur the deficiency becomes more extenſive. To the S. of Cobbé, at the diſtance of twenty-three days, are noted copper mines; beyond which, at the diſtance of ſeven days and a half, is the Bahr el Abiad. Mr. Browne's map is unfortunately laid down with little care, and the river is placed too near the mines. To the W. is the river of Kulla, the banks of which according to Mr. Browne's information abound with pimento trees, and the ferry-boats are partly managed by poles, partly by a double oar.[5] The trees are ſo vigorous, from the quantity of water and deep clay, that canoes are hollowed ſo large as to contain ten perſons. The natives of Kulla are partly negroes, and partly of a red or copper colour; and the country is chiefly frequented by Jelabs or traders from Bergoo and Fur, in order to procure ſlaves, the moſt trivial offence being here puniſhed by ſelling the perſon to foreign merchants. On the W. of Bornou Mr. Browne heard of Afnou, which is a negro word for Soudan or Nigritia in general, but is particularized as a country abundant in ſilver: and there is a remote part of the pagan country, called Gnum-gnum, where the people eat their captives taken in war; but this can ſcarcely be the Maniana of Park, and it is probable that the mountaineers in the S. retain, as uſual, the moſt ancient and ferocious manners. Mr. Browne did not hear of Wangara; but Zamphara, not far from Bornou, was mentioned by his informers, commonly Jelabs or travelling merchants.

Thus far the rays of modern intelligence throw a faint light upon northern Africa; and beyond all is theory and conjecture. But amidſt this uncertainty there are two ſources of information which deſerve preference, till more preciſe knowledge can be obtained. Theſe are Ptolemy, who wrote in Egypt, before the negroes were envenomed with Mahometan fanaticiſm, and after the Roman arms had penetrated to the Nigir: and the Arabian authors, who, by the progreſs of Maho-

[5] Browne, p. 308.

metaniſm,

metaniſm, had the beſt intelligence concerning this continent. Yet upon the whole Ptolemy's information and exactneſs will obtain a decided preference over the fabulous turn and groſs inaccuracies of the Arabian geographers; and it has already been remarked that the recent diſcoveries, both in the eaſt and weſt, tend to confirm Ptolemy's deſcription; or rather the general aſpect of the map conſtructed upon it by Agathademon. Browne's Journey.

The moſt remarkable error, or inaccuracy, in Ptolemy's map is that he certainly conceives the Nigir to riſe in the mountain of Thala; or, what amounts to the ſame, he ſuppoſes that the river terminated in a lake in the W. which he calls Nigritis Palus; whence it was clearly the opinion of this great geographer that the Nigir ran from E. to W. in which he ſeems to have been miſled by confounding it with the Gir.* The laſt river he clearly deduces from mountains in the S. E. ſo as to correſpond with the Bahr Kulla, though he be a ſtranger to its remote ſource. This river is another grand feature of Ptolemy's deſcription, which has eſcaped modern geographers, though D'Anville, 1749, had inſerted it with his uſual knowledge and induſtry. This river is repreſented by Ptolemy as receiving two tributary ſtreams from two lakes; and among other cities on its banks is a metropolis called Gira; as upon the Nigir there is another ſtyled the Nigira. The termination of the Gir is not a little obſcure, but it ſeems to be delineated as paſſing under a chain of hills, on the N. of the Lybia Palus, or central lake of Africa, and afterwards joining the Nigir in its courſe to the W.† Other circumſtances of Ptolemy's map will remain obſcure till further diſcoveries. His Panagra, between the Gir and the Nigir, may be the Wangara of the Arabs; and his mountains of Caphas, Thala, and Aranga, ſeem to Ptolemy.

* In his deſcription of the Nigir he conſiders it as joining Mount Mandrus, (at the bottom of which is the Nigritis) with Mount Thala in the centre of Africa, and ſays nothing of its origin. By a ſtriking ſingularity he deſcribes all the rivers that join it as being deflections, or digreſſive ſtreams, (ἐκτροπη) from the Nigir.

† Claudian, a native of Egypt, thus mentions the Gir.

Heſperidum Triton; et Gir notiſſimus amnis
Æthiopum, ſimili mentitus gurgite Nilum.
De laud. Stil. i. 251.

belong

Ptolemy. belong to the central ridge. To the S. he inſerts the names of numerous petty tribes, probably diſperſed in the central mountains, for ſuch little diviſions are common in the mountains of Barbary, as appears from Shaw, and other travellers. To the S. of theſe is the wide region of Agiſymba, with the mountains of Xiphé and Barditas, and that of Meſchi giving ſource to a river which runs S. out of the bounds of Ptolemy's geography, but probably one of thoſe that flow from the mountains of Kong into the gulf of Guinea.

It has already been obſerved that this geographer has omitted the Zaara or Great Deſert, and that the interior part of his map is laid down from land routes, while the weſtern coaſt is from maritime expeditions. On the S. his latitudes are equally erroneous, as he places the ſources of the Nile, and the mountains of the moon, in S. lat. 13°, inſtead of N. lat. 6°, or 7°; an error of about twenty degrees or 1200 g. miles! It ſeems evident that even his moſt ſouthern mountains belong to the central ridge of Kumri; but that he had heard of Agiſymba, which, according to D'Anville, in the Abyſſinian language only ſignifies Southern Country: while, from the natives on the S. of the Nigir, the Romans may have learned that ſome rivers ran from the mountains of Kong towards a ſouthern ſea.

The Arabs. Having thus briefly examined the leading points of Ptolemy's African geography, that of the Arabs will not be found deſerving of equal attention. The moſt celebrated is Edriſi, who wrote in Sicily in the twelfth century, but from his minute attention to eaſtern Africa, he was formerly ſtyled the Nubian geographer. By ſome ſtrange inadvertence the towns mentioned by this author, who wrote ſix centuries and a half ago, have been inſerted in modern maps, while perhaps there is not one of them in exiſtence. Setting this aſide it will appear, from an accurate examination of Edriſi, that while his Nile of the Negroes, which he ſays runs to the W., has been miſtaken for the Nigir, he really knew nothing of that river; and his Nile of the Negroes is the Gir of Ptolemy, terminating in an inland lake, in which was the iſland of Ulil, one day's ſail from the mouth of the river; and in which iſland another Arabian geographer places the capital city of all Soudan. Beyond this lake and

iſland Edriſi appears to have had no knowledge of central Africa; all the regions and towns he mentions ſeem to belong to the Gir, his Nile of the Negroes, running to the N. W. and from his account it would appear that Wangara is the delta of the Gir. It is however to be hoped that Mr. Hornemann will ſoon adjuſt theſe uncertainties. Some have conceived that the river of Kulla, after proceeding ſome time to the N. W. flows S. W. and joins the ſea at Calabar: but this is improbable, for Mr. Browne repeatedly expreſſed his idea to the author that this river continued its courſe in its original direction; and it is not likely that it ſhould paſs the grand mountainous ridge, in its centre and higheſt part, nor that ſo great a ſtream, which would afford ſuch a grand inland navigation, ſhould have eſcaped travellers in Benin and Calabar; nor according to the beſt maps is there any eſtuary in theſe countries that can at all correſpond to ſuch a river. The moſt curious and important diſcoveries which remain are probably the river Gir, and the lakes, marſhes, or deſerts, which receive that river and the Nigir; the latter being an object of great ſingularity, equally unknown in the time of Ptolemy and at the preſent day. Perhaps in a level plain theſe large rivers ſend off various branches, gradually loſt in the ſands; but Ptolemy and the Arabs indicate a great central lake, which could ſcarcely ſo long have eſcaped more preciſe notice, except we conceive that the northern part is ſurrounded with deſerts, and the ſouthern with lofty and inacceſſible mountains, covered with foreſts and full of ferocious animals, ſo that the traders only paſſing the northern part, and iſle of Ulil, are complete ſtrangers to its ſouthern extremity. But whether theſe conjectures ſhall be claſſed with the travels of Gaudentio di Lucca,* or be found conſiderably to approach the truth, muſt be left to future diſcovery. The Arabs.

As in Aſia the chief obſtacles to diſcovery have not been the ſandy deſerts of Cobi or Shamo, but the inacceſſible mountains of Tibet, ſo in Africa it would appear that the impediments muſt ariſe from high mountains, and not from ſandy deſerts, ſuch as are familiarly paſſed by

* This ſingular work was publiſhed by Biſhop Berkley, and pretends to diſcloſe an interior country in Africa. The Biſhop and his friends ſeemed to regard it as genuine, but the public has never concurred in that opinion.

caravans

The Arabs. caravans in every direction: it is alſo probable that theſe mountains are covered with thick foreſts, and the thorny underwood frequent in Africa, ſometimes inhabited by aboriginal tribes of the greateſt cruelty and ferocity, and at others ſwarming with lions, tigers, and panthers. It would have been moſt beneficial to the natives if, as in Aſia and Europe, victorious armies had eſtabliſhed wide empires; and, at the expence of temporary deſtruction, had ſecured laſting intercourſe and general advantages.

Southern Africa. The continual wars between petty tribes ſeem alſo to conſpire with a ridge of impaſſable mountains, called Lupata, or the Spine of the World, to prevent diſcoveries in the interior of ſouthern Africa, where the map of D'Anville, half a century ago, preſents every thing that is known with any degree of certainty at the preſent day.* By a ſingular fatality Africa, the leaſt known of all the continents, has become the portion of the Portugueſe, the moſt ignorant of all the European nations. In the hands even of the Ruſſians conſiderable light would have been diffuſed, while the Portugueſe darkneſs renders all ſurrounding objects as vague and obſcure, as if they belonged to the twelfth century. Beſides the chain of mountains pervading this part of Africa from N. to S., or perhaps two chains at a conſiderable diſtance, ſupporting an upland terrace in the centre, whence there are no rivers of prodigious ſize as in South America, the chief feature yet known ſeems to be a lake of great extent, called Maravi, laid down by D'Anville as more than 350 B. miles in length, but of inadequate breadth. This lake may perhaps, like that of Baikal, lie at the foot of the table-land on one ſide, as that of Aquilunda of far ſmaller extent does on the other. The rivers of Barbela in Congo, and Zambezi in Mocaranga, are alſo grand features; which ſeem to be delineated by D'Anville in his general map of Africa, and his particular maps of Congo, Angola, and Mocaranga, 1731, with as much care and preciſion as his Portugueſe materials would admit. The navigation of the Zambezi is interrupted for about twenty leagues, by cataracts or violent rapids, about the diſtance of 140 leagues from

* On the E. of Congo are the mountains of Cryſtal, and thoſe of the Sun, the latter being naked alpine precipices. See Pigafetta's Congo, &c.

the ſea. To the N. are, or were, the Mumbos, a race of cannibals, who with the Zimbas and Jagas, ſavages of equal cruelty, have deſolated a great part of ſouthern Africa.* Should the Portugueſe retain their poſſeſſions, it is likely that the darkneſs may be the ſame in the year 2002, as it is in 1802, when it is little better than it was in 1602, ſome accounts having been then publiſhed by Lopez and Philip Pigafetta. It is to be regretted that in our ſtrict alliance with Portugal we do not inſtigate that government to uſe ſome means to improve the geography of ſouthern Africa; and La Cruz's map of South America ſhould operate as a ſtimulus and example. It is probable that the country is as fertile in the precious metals as the other continent, and it is wholly unaccountable, and a truly ſingular deſtiny, that America ſhould be filled with European colonies, while Africa is neglected. If the natives of the weſtern continent were not ſpared, humanity would have little cauſe to regret the extirpation of the Mumbos and Jagas, and the conſequent deliverance of the more gentle and civilized tribes from the unceaſing deſtruction inflicted by theſe cannibals. Small colonies on the ſhores will effect nothing in ſuch a country, and the wrongs of Africa can only be terminated by a powerful European colony, an enterprize worthy of any great European nation, a ſcene of new and vaſt ambition, and among the few warfares which would eſſentially contribute to the eventual intereſts of humanity, and raiſe a degraded continent to its due rank in the civilized world.

SOUTHERN AFRICA.

Meanwhile it is more conſonant with the tenor and purpoſe of the preſent work to expreſs a humbler wiſh, that ſpirited travellers would explore theſe regions, as the fame of ſcience is ſuperior to that of arms: and if we cannot diffuſe civilization, and the bleſſings of ſtable and ſubordinate ſociety, we may at leaſt, by compariſon, learn duly to prize their advantages.

* From Cavazzi's Account of Congo, Bologna, 1687, fol. it would ſeem that the Jagas are the Tatars of central Africa, chiefly conſiſting of wandering tribes who range from the ſouth of Abyſſinia to the confines of Congo W. and of Mocaranga E. It would alſo appear that between the ranges of mountains there are vaſt ſandy deſerts.

APPENDIX

TO

VOLUME SECOND.

Extracts concerning the Chineſe War in Little Bucharia, 1755 to 1759.

From the Hiſtoire Generale de la Chine, tome xi. Paris 1780, 4to. p. 550, &c. *This Work being rare and expenſive, the following brief Summary of that remarkable War, which ſo much enlarged the Chineſe Empire, may be acceptable; eſpecially as it preſents every Circumſtance which can illuſtrate the obſcure Geography of an intereſting Country.* (See p. 375, 376.)

SINCE the acceſſion of the preſent, or Mandſhur, dynaſty, the chief wars of the Chineſe have been with thoſe Monguls called Kalkas, who dwell towards the rivers Kerlon and Tula. Theſe tribes being at length ſubdued, and the family of the Kaldan, or ſovereign, extinguiſhed or forgotten, a new vicinity produced, as uſual, a new enmity, and the Chineſe arms were directed more to the weſt. The throne of the Eluts was conteſted by Debatchi, (called by the Chineſe Taoua-tſi,) and by another chief named Amourſana. The latter was forced to withdraw, and ſeek refuge in the Chineſe court at Geho. The kings of the Eluts uſed to reſide on the river Ili, where a city has ſince been built by the Chineſe; and though choſen as a place of exile, was greatly increaſing in population.

Kien-Long, the Chineſe emperor, wiſhed to avoid a diſtant and expenſive war againſt the Kalmuks of Soongaria, alſo called Eluts by the Chineſe, but being irritated by the diſreſpectful conduct of Debatchi, he undertook this war in oppoſition to the advice of all his councils. In the beginning of 1755 Amourſana proceeded at the head of a Chineſe army againſt Debatchi, who was taken priſoner, and ſent to the court of Pekin, where he ſoon after died. Amourſana was named king of the Eluts or Kalmuks under the protection of China; but, ſpeedily revolting, he attacked the Chineſe ſtations on the Ili, deſtroyed the forts and redoubts, and having ſlain the two Chineſe generals Panti and Aiongan, he pitched his camp before Palikoun, one of the chief towns of the Eluts, which was ſtrongly garriſoned by the Chineſe. This town is probably the Bulugan of the Ruſſian maps, about 60 miles N. W. from the lake Barkol.

Other Chineſe generals were equally unfortunate; but the garriſon of Barkol was reinforced, and checked the progreſs of the enemy. This ſeems clearly to be the town of Barkol, or Ortic, on the eaſt of the lake of Barkol. At length, in 1757, the emperor was fortunate in appointing a general of real ſkill, named Tchao-hoci, and the diſſenſions of the Kalmuks contributed to their deſtruction. The Chineſe lieutenant-general, Fouté, was alſo a man of diſtinguiſhed courage and enterpriſe: and Amourſana was ſoon forced to retire into Siberia, where he died. Numbers of the Kalmuks took refuge among the Pourouts or Buruts, a part of the Kirguſes; others among the Tanguts towards Tibet, and among the Torguts or more weſtern Kalmuks. Kien-Long divided the country of the Eluts among ſeveral chieftains, who were bound to the court by homage and titles.

The country of Little Bucharia, ſtyled by the Chineſe Hoa-men, or Hoei-pou, that is, *the horde of Mahometans*, had been ſubject to the Kalmuks of Soongaria. During the courſe of the war, the Mahometan chiefs of Yerquen, or Yarcand, and Haſhar, or Caſhgar, (princes called by the Chineſe the Greater and the Leſſer Ho-tchom,) ungrateful for favours received from Kien-Long, had ſlain a Chineſe officer and 100 cavalry. The Chineſe general, Tchao-hoei, advanced againſt the Ho-tchoms, who being defeated retired to Yerquen, which ſurrendered; and was ſpeedily followed by Haſhar. "Beſides Haſhar and Yerquen, they likewiſe became maſters of ſeventeen other towns large and ſmall, and of 16,000 villages or hamlets. In the

diſtrict of Haſhar were reckoned about 60,000 families; without compriſing thoſe who had followed the rebels, and about 12,500 people exiles in the country on the Ili. Haſhar was little more than ten *li* (probably of 250 to the degree) in circuit, and only contained 2500 families. To the eaſt of Haſhar were ſituated Ouchei and Akſou. Between this laſt town and Haſhar were three towns, Poïſonpat-hotchil, Poï-inké, Entorché; and two large villages, Peſerguen and Arvouat, inhabited by about 6,000 families. To the weſt of Haſhar were the Buruts of Ertchi-yen, (probably Adjian;) and between the two, the towns of Paha-ertouché, Opil, Tajamelik; and the villages of Saïram and Tokouſak, which however were only computed at 2200 families. To the ſouth of Haſhar, before arriving at Yerquen, are ſituated two towns, Inkatſar-han, Kalik; and two hamlets, Toſohoun and Kavalkar: the four containing about 4400 families. Finally, to the north of Haſhar, are the Buruts, properly ſo called, to whoſe country one paſſes by the town of Arkoui, and the village of Horhan, which may contain nearly 800 families, On a general computation, the Mahometans depending on Haſhar were about 16 000 families, eſtimated at 100,000 heads, as is proved by the public regiſters."

There were fifteen degrees of magiſtracy; among which the chief was that of Akim or governor of the city; his lieutenant the Hichehan; the Hatſee, or judge of criminal affairs; and the Marab, or collector of the taxes. The letter of Tchao-hoei to the emperor, 13th September 1759, preſents further particulars. Chineſe garriſons were eſtabliſhed even in ſmall poſts, as Opil, Tajamelik, Tchik, Entorché, and Païſoupath.

Meanwhile Fouté purſued the fugitive Ho-tchoms, or Mahometan chieftains, whom he defeated at Atchour, whence they fled towards Badakſhan, and arrived at Poulok-kol. Fouté continued the purſuit to the great range of mountains (Belur-Tag); and learnt from a native that the enemy had paſſed, and arrived near Badakſhan, but had ſtill a very high mountain to aſcend, ſituated between two lakes, that on the one ſide being called Poloun-kol, and that on the other ſide Iſil-kol. Beyond the former is a high mountain, whence Badakſhan may be deſcried. Fouté purſued the Mahometans again, defeated them amidſt the mountains, and ſummoned the governor of Badakſhan to ſurrender the Mahometan princes. One had died in battle, but the head of the other was ſent to Pekin; and the Chineſe general retired ſatisfied with his ſucceſs *.

Poſition of the chief Places ſubject to the Eluts or Kalmuks; the Longitude computed from the Meridian of Pekin. (Ib. xi. 575.)

	Latitudes.		*Longitudes.*	
	Deg.	Min.	Deg.	Min.
Kou-tché,	41	37	33	32
Pou-kou-eulh,	41	44	32	7
Chaïar,	41	5	33	21
Cou-ko-pou-yn,	41	20	33	40
Akſou,	41	9	37	15
Saïlim,	41	41	34	40
Païſ,	41	41	35	12
Ouchei,	40	6	38	27
Gaoché,	40	19	42	50
Peſch-karam, or Poche-kolmou,	39	20	42	10
Haſhar,	39	25	42	25
Ingazar (Inkeſal)	38	47	41	50
Tajamelik	39	6	42	53
Yerquen,	38	19	40	10
Oulelek,	37	41	39	48
Chatou,	37	43	39	30
Harhalik,	37	41	39	15
Selekoueulh,	37	48	42	24
Koukiar,	37	7	39	2
Santchou,	36	58	37	47
Tonoua,	36	52	37	7
Paltchouk,	39	15	39	35
Peichéniya,	36	26	35	53
Ilitchi,	37	—	35	52
Halahaché,	37	10	36	14
Yulongaché,	36	52	35	37
Tchila,	36	47	34	42
Také,	36	13	33	45
Kelia,	37	—	33	33
Antchiyen,	41	28	44	35
Iſitalchan,	41	48	45	6
Marhalan,	41	24	45	10
Namkan,	41	38	45	40
Haohan,	41	23	45	56
Altoubeï,	41	33	48	10
Tachekan,	43	3	47	33
Badakchan,	36	23	43	50
Chekonan,	36	47	44	46
Gaolochan,	36	49	45	26
Ouahan,	38	—	45	9
Poloeulh,	37	—	43	38
Hatchouté,	37	11	42	32

* The reign of Kien-Long is here continued till 1780, but there is no hint of his having viſited Badakſhan, a reported but moſt improbable circumſtance.

CATALOGUE OF MAPS,

AND OF

BOOKS OF VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.

In the Maps the Letter L *denotes the Large,* M *the Middle,* S *the Small, as explained in the Preface. A complete Catalogue of Books of Voyages and Travels might fill Two octavo Volumes; but here only a few of the moſt uſeful and intereſting are enumerated, eſpecially the more modern* *.

Globes.

BY Adams, Cary, Bardin. The laſt, from drawings by Mr. Arrowſmith, with the neweſt diſcoveries, are deſervedly eſteemed; and the celeſtial globes are alſo executed with great care and preciſion. In Cary's celeſtial globe, 1798, the conſtellations are only marked by bounding tints, and the eye is not diſtracted with the ridiculous figures of animals, &c. Some aſtronomers however, and they are the beſt judges, prefer the ancient figures, on account of ſpeedy and accurate reference †.

Planiſphere.

By Arrowſmith, 4 Sheets, 1794, &c. excellent. His pamphlet called "A Companion to a Map of the World," explains the projection, and contains ſome valuable information. There are planiſpheres publiſhed at Vienna, &c. ſtereographically projected for the horizon of the place of publication ‡.

Smaller Planiſpheres by Faden, Harriſon, &c. Northern and Southern Hemiſpheres, Faden, 1 ſh. each, 1802.

On Mercator's Projection.

Of this Mercator was not however the author, as it was uſed long before his time. The beſt on this projection is that by Arrowſmith, 1790, &c. 8 ſh. That of Faden, 1 ſh.

EUROPE.

Maps. L. By De Bouge, Vienna, 1799, 50 half ſh. middling. By Sotzmann, in 16 ſh.

M. By D'Anville, 6 ſh. 1754. Arrowſmith, 4 ſh. 1798.

S. Faden, &c. 1 ſh. 1791.

Books. The Geography of Buſching in German, or the French tranſlation, 1785, 14 vols. 8vo. a prolix work, but containing excellent materials. Supplemental to Buſching's Europe are the America of Ebeling, 1797, and the Africa of Bruns, 1799; the former tedious, the laſt good. Aſia was begun by Borheck 1793, but ſeems incomplete. In the French abſtract of Buſching by Berenger, Lauſanne, 1776, &c. 12 vols. 8vo. tolerable accounts of the other

* The moſt commodious form of arranging maps in a library ſeems to be that lately adopted, of paſting them on canvas, and putting them into a caſe which ſtands erect like a quarto volume, there being ſix folds in the ſheet of large atlas paper. The volumes being titled on the back, and each map or part labelled, it may be conſulted with eaſe, without the trouble of a large bound atlas, or the confuſion of detached ſheets.

† In general geography Varenius may ſtill be conſulted, with the firſt and only volume of Macfait, Edin. 1780, 8vo. There is a *Catalogue Raiſonnée des Cartes* by Julien, 1774, 2 tomes 8vo. now rather antiquated: he was alſo, it is believed, the vender of Homann's maps.

‡ Boullanger's map of the world, 1760, is on the horizon of a point 45° of the height of the pole towards the north. In 1774 Father de Gy publiſhed one ſimilar, projected on the horizon of Paris. Theſe maps preſent, under one point of view, the four parts of the world, which, as Fleurieu ſays, nature has aſſembled under the ſame hemiſphere.

regions

regions are added, but the want of references renders them unſatisfactory *.

England.

L. The ſurveys of the ſeveral counties, particularly Surrey and Suſſex, by Linley and Gardner, which are trigonometrical. Some of the beſt ſurveys are publiſhed by Faden.

The grand trigonometrical ſurvey of England will ſpeedily appear before the public, in part of Eſſex; (the map of Kent being a ſpecimen of the plates, but not of the plan.) It is reported to excel in accuracy, abundance of poſitions, clearneſs, and beauty. The whole ſheets are filled to the edges; and when finiſhed will compoſe one uniform map, like Caſſini's map of France.

M. Smith's Atlas. Cary's Atlas of the counties. Cary's England and Wales, 81 4to. ſh. La Rochette's map, 12 ſh. Andrews, 6 ſh.

S. Kitchin's map, 4 ſh. Faden, &c. 1 ſh. 1800.

The maps in Saxton's Atlas, and Speed's Theatre, may be conſulted for the ſake of curioſity.

Camden's Britannia. Aikin's England Delineated. Pennant's Tours. Campbell's Political Survey, a tedious, but uſeful work. Arthur Young's Tours. Voyage de St. Fond, &c. &c.

Wales.

The maps by Evans, 9 ſh. Reduced 1 ſh. (North Wales). Of South Wales there is an old bad map by Bowen, 6 ſh. Pennant's Tours, Evans's Cambrian Itinerary, Aikin's Journey, &c. &c.

Scotland.

L. The ſurveys of various counties.

M. Ainſlie's Map, 9 ſh. Dorret's map, 1750, 4 ſh. ſeveral miſtakes.

S. General Roy's map, very ſcarce. Pennant's, &c. Ainſlie's reduced. All 1 ſh.

Statiſtical Account. 21 vols. 8vo. Camden's Britannia, by Gough. Pennant's Tours. Scotland Delineated. Voyage de St. Fond, &c. Volkmann'-Travels in Scotland and Ireland, Leipſick, 1784, 8vo.

Ireland.

L. Surveys of ſome counties.

M.

S. By Dr. Beaufort, 1792, 2d edit. 1797, 2 ſh. Dr. Beaufort's map reduced, 1 ſh. Faden. Taylor's, 1793, 1 ſh. Faden.

Young's Tour, 2 vols. 8vo. excellent. Camden's Britannia, &c.

France.

L. Caſſini's, 183 ſh. begun in 1744, 70 ſheets were executed before 1767; and the whole was not completed till very lately (about 1794.) Atlas National, 85 ſh. neat, the mountains being etched, ſo that the ſhade does not injure the lettering.

M. The ſmaller Atlas National. Several ſheets reduced from Caſſini, Faden, &c. &c.

S. On the ſcale of D'Anville's Ancient Gaul, 1780, 1 ſh. Faden's, &c. 1792, 1 ſh. Index ſheet to the large map of Caſſini.—In departments by Belleyme, 4 ſh. *France Phyſique*, or a map of France, ſhewing the mountains, rivers, &c. by Buache, 1 ſh.

Voyage dans les Departments, a declamatory work, full of the new philoſophy and ſentimental hypocriſy. Deſcription General, Paris, 1781, folio. Voyage Pittoreſque, Paris, 1784, folio. Arthur Young's Tour, ſolid and excellent. Moore's View of Society in France. La Croix Geographie.

Netherlands.

L. By Ferraris, 25 large ſh.

M. Atlas des Departments Belgiques. By Schrembl, from Ferraris, 4 ſh. Frontiers of Holland from Ferraris, Faden, 1 ſh.

S. By Crome, 1 ſh. Reduced from Ferraris, by Faden, 1 ſh. 1789.

Marſhall's Journey, &c. &c.

Ruſſia in Europe.

L. Maps of the ſeveral governments, but theſe are in the Ruſſian character and unfit for general uſe. The ſame, recent, 9 ſh. Some governments by Treſſcott, &c. in Latin.

Dezanchi's map of the Krimea. The Krim, by Kinſbergen, 4 ſh. Van Kulen's Chart of Spitzbergen, 2 ſh. &c. &c.

M.

S. Ruſſian Empire, 3 ſh. Peterſburg, 1789. By Treſſcott and Smidt, 1776, 3 ſh. Poſt map to Tobolſk, 2 ſh. Reduced map, 1 ſh. London. Kyrelof's map, 1734, 2 ſh. curious.

Tooke's View of the Ruſſian Empire, 1799, 3 vols. 8vo. Tooke's Ruſſia, 1781, 4 vols. 8vo. Voyage de Pallas, Paris, 8 vols. 8vo. Hiſtoire des Decouvertes, &c. Lauſanne, 1784, 6 vols. 8vo. Giorgi's (pr. Ghiorghi,) Deſcription of all the nations in the Ruſſian Empire, Peterſburg, 1776 to 1780, 4 vols. 4to. in German or in French. Coxe's Travels, &c.

Auſtrian

* Excluſive of the old ſyſtems of geography by Moll, &c. there are in Engliſh Bowen's, 1747, 2 vols. fol. maps: Middleton's, 1777, 2 vols. fol. maps: but the beſt of the kind is that by Fenning, or rather Collyer, who informs us that Fenning only wrote the aſtronomical introduction. The fourth edition is 1773, 2 vols. fol. with maps by Kitchin. It is, like the others, a decent compilation of the more amuſing parts of geography, but is totally deficient in diſcuſſion or information ſtrictly geographical. Vol. I. contains Aſia and Africa; Vol. II. Europe and America. It is unneceſſary to mention the ſucceſſive *grammars*, as they are abſurdly called, of Gordon, Salmon, and Guthrie. Many miſtakes of the latter may be traced in Collyer, neither of them being verſed in geography as a ſcience.

Auſtrian Dominions.

L. There are large provincial maps of moſt of the Auſtrian dominions, and the moſt modern are generally the beſt; among the others may be mentioned, Atlas of Tyrol, 21 ſh. Atlas of Bohemia, by Muller, 25 ſh. Military Atlas, 20 ſh. Moravia, by Venuto, 2 ſh. Gallitz and Lodomer, by Lieſkany, 42 ſmall ſh. Hungary, by Artaria and Company, 4 ſh.: By Schrembl, 4 ſh. better. Tranſylvania, by Schrembl, 2 ſh. Sclavonia, &c. by the ſame, 2 ſh. Venetian territory (in Dalbe). Atlas of Gallitz and Lodomer, with the Bukovin, by Maire, 12 ſh.

M. Auſtria, by the Artarian Company, Vienna, 1800. 1 large ſh. Bohemia, by Schmettau, 4 ſh. Venice, &c. by Santini Chauchard's Germany. Oblong Atlas, by Kempen, 100 minute and crowded. Weſtern Gallitz, by Lichtenſtern, 1 ſh.

S. Auſtrian dominions, 1 ſh. by Baron Lichtenſtern, 1795; this map embraces the Netherlands. Hungary, by Windiſch, 1 ſh.; the ſame in Townſon's Journey, 1 ſh. Muller's Bohemia, reduced, 1 ſh. Bannat, 1 ſh. Old maps of the Venetian territory, by Nolin, 2 ſh.; by De Witt, Homann, Sanſon, Jaillot, 1 ſh. antiquated; the laſt mentioned is the beſt.

Townſon's Travels in Hungary. Rieſbeck's Travels. Wraxall's Memoirs, Born's Travels in Hungary and Tranſylvania, and thoſe in the Bannat. Beaumont's Rhetian Alps. Dalmatia, by Fortis.

Pruſſian States.

L. Poland and Pruſſia, by Zannoni, 25 ſh. Atlas, by Sotzmann, 21 ſh. All the provinces publiſhed ſeparately. Atlas of Sileſia, by Mayer, 20 ſh.

M. Sotzmann's, 16 4to. ſh.

S. Pruſſian dominions, a French map reduced from Sotzmann, 2 ſh. Reduced by Sotzmann, 1 ſh. 18cc.

Marſhall's Travels. Coxe. Rieſbeck. Wraxall, &c.

Spain.

L. The geography of this country is imperfect; the beſt atlas is that of Lopez, but it is poorly and inaccurately executed. The coaſts have been drawn by Tofino, the royal aſtronomer, with great care, and publiſhed at Madrid 1798. As Lopez remains the chief authority for the interior, a brief view of his work may be proper.

Atlas Geografico de Eſpana, compueſto por Don Tomàs Lopez y Vargas, Geografo por S. M. de Sus Reales Dominos, de la real Academia de S. Fernando, de la real Sociedad Baſcongada, &c. Madrid 1792. Imperial 4to. Map 1. Ancient Spain. 2. Modern Spain, ſingle ſh. 1788; longitude from the Peak of Tenerif. He accuſes the foreign maps of errors in the diviſion of the governments, and the courſe of mountains and rivers. 3. The Pyrenees, from Sanſon. 4. Modern Spain, 4 ſh. by Lopez, 1792. 5. Province of Madrid. 6. Ditto of Toledo. 7. Archbiſhopric of Toledo, 4 ſh. Then about 36 provincial maps, with Majorca, Minorca, Iviça, or Iviza. States of Barbary. The harbours of Tripoly and Tunis. The bay of Algiers, with the attacks 1783 and 1784. Plans of other African harbours. The Iſlands Azores. The Canary Iſlands. Particular maps of the Canary Iſlands. Chart of the gulf of Mexico, and of the Weſt Indies. Cuba. Hiſpaniola. Porto Rico. The Leſſer Antilles, or Caribbee Iſlands. The Iſlands Lucayos. The environs of Mexico. Tierra Fermé. Province of Carthagena. Other American provinces. Plan of Quito. Marianne Iſlands, by Lopez, 1784. In Spaniſh maps the north is marked by a caſtle, the badge of Caſtille.—Minorca, 2 ſh. by de la Rochette, 1780.

M. Spain by Mentelle and Chanlaire, Paris 1799, 9 ſh. well engraved.

S. By Lopez, 4 ſh. By the ſame, 1 ſh. Faden, 1 ſh.

Townſend's Travels. Bourgoing. Baretti. Link, &c. Thoſe of Dillon are chiefly tranſlated from Bowles's Spaniſh work on the natural hiſtory of the country. Ponz, Viage de Eſpana, 8 vols. 8vo. Madrid, 1776*. Swinburn's Travels, 4to. Fiſcher's Travels, 1801, 2 vols. 8vo. Fr. tr.

Turkey in Europe.

L. Geography very imperfect. Moldavia by Bawr, 6 ſh. Moldavia, &c. 1788, 2 ſh. Danube by Mansfeld, 7 ſmall ſh. The ſame by Marſigli. Bulgaria by Schenk. Beſſarbia, &c. by Guſſefeld. Greece by D'Anville; and the Atlas to the Travels of Anacharſis. The Propontis by Zemenic; by Chevalier, 2 ſh; and the two ſtraits publiſhed by Faden, 1786, (by La Rochette.)

M. Wallachia by Ruhedorf, 1788, 1 ſh. curious.

S. Turkey in Europe by Arrowſmith, 2 ſh. Faden's Map, 1 ſh. Greece by La Rochette, 1 ſh.

The travels in Greece and the Levant are innumerable. Among the beſt are Wheeler, Chandler, and Tournefort, with the Voyage Pittoreſque, and Stewart's Antiquities of Athens. D'Oliſſon Tableau de l'Empire Otoman, 2 tomes fol. The laſt by Olivier, 1802, is only another voyage to the Levant. Yet the northern and weſtern parts of Turkey in Europe have been rarely viſited. Boſcovich Viaggio da Coſtantinopoli in Polonia, con una ſua relazione delle rovine di Troja, Baſſano, 1784, 8vo.

* There are many other large deſcriptions of Spain, as the Atlante Eſpanol, 14 vols. 8vo. There are alſo Univerſal Geographical Dictionaries by Alcedo and by Pere; the laſt 3 vols. 4to.

Holland.

Holland.

L. There are provincial maps of all the provinces, but the new ſurvey will be preferable. Wicbeking's Holland and Utrecht, 1796, 8 ſh. North Holland, 16 ſh. Reduced, 4 ſh.

M. The United Provinces by Zepp, a good clear map.

S. The Seven United Provinces, with the Land of Drent and Generality Lands, 1794, by Faden, 1 ſh. Mr. Faden's maps are in general highly to be praiſed for accuracy and neatneſs.

Ray's Travels. Thoſe of Marſhall and Mrs. Radcliffe, &c. &c. Febure Itineraire, 1784, 2 tomes, 12mo. Pilati, 1780, 2 tomes, 12mo.

Denmark.

L. Moſt of the provinces are completed under the direction of Bygge the aſtronomer; and ſome good maps of the ſhores, &c. have been publiſhed by Lowenorn.

M. The Iſle of Zeeland, &c. by Weſſel, 1777, 1 ſh.

S. Denmark Proper, (by E. P.) Copenhagen, 1763, 1 ſh. miſerably engraved. Norway by C. J. Pontoppidan, 1785, 3 ſh. good, and decently engraved. The ſame in Baron Hermelin's reduced map. Iceland by Erichſen and Olavius, 1780, 1 ſh. but the projection is erroneous, the length being one third too great: See the Voyage of La Crenne, Paris, 1778, and the Journal of Zach, vol. vi. The Ferroe Iſles by Lowenorn. Norway and Sweden, 1 ſh. Faden. The ſame, Pontoppidan, 1 ſh. There are ſeveral maps of Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Iceland, all compriſed in 1 ſh.

Marſhall's Travels. Coxe, &c. Von Troil's Iceland. The map is carelefsly drawn, and among other omiſſions are the names of the rivers: In p. 5. there muſt be ſome groſs error in diſtance. Voyage to Norway by Fabricius, 1779, in German.

Sweden.

L. Baron Hermelin's Atlas of the Provinces, Stockholm, 1797, is excellent, and adorned with intereſting proſpects in Lapland, &c.

M.

S. Hermelin's reduced map. Faden's by La Rochette, 1794.

Travels of Maupertuis, Coxe, Marſhall, Wraxall, &c.

Portugal.

L. The geography is perhaps worſe than that of Spain; and Link has pointed out many groſs errors in the maps by Lopez, &c. A new ſurvey is in progreſs.

M. By Lopez, in 8 ſh. bad. By Jefferys, improved by Gen. Rainsford, 6 ſh. new edition, 1790.

S. The chorographical map by de la Rochette, publiſhed by Faden, 1797, 1 ſh. perhaps the beſt yet executed. Compare it with that by Lodge after Zannoni. For a groſs error of Lopez ſee Link, p. 257.

Link's Travels, 1801, 8vo. the beſt account yet given of the country. Murphy, Southey, &c. Lima's Geography of Portugal, 1736. Deſcription of Portugal, Liſbon 1785, with an account of Portugueſe ſaints *.

Switzerland.

L. The Atlas by Weiſs, geographical engineer, Straſburg, an 8, 1800, &c. excellent.

M. The old map by Scheuchzer, 4 ſh.

S. The reduced map by Weiſs, 1 ſh. excellent. By Mechel, 1799, 1 ſh. good. That in Coxe's Travels is of little value, from the great ſuperiority of theſe two.

Coxe's Travels, the beſt of all the modern ſeries. Bourrit, Deſcription des Glaciers. The celebrated Travels of Sauſſure to the Alps chiefly relate to the French and Italian chains.

German States.

L. There are large maps of moſt of the electorates. *Saxony:* The military atlas, &c. and the maps of the diſtricts. *Brunſwick-Lunenburg*, or *Hanover:* many maps of the diſtricts. Mecklenburg Schwerin, 16 ſh. Strelitz, 9 ſh. Duchy of Berg, 4 ſh. On the *South of the Mayn* there is an atlas of Bavariaby Riedl; and an atlas of Suabia, (including, of courſe, the Duchy of Wurtemburg,) in 30 ſh. The Duchy of Wurtemburg by Viſcher, 1 ſh. Of all the other ſtates there are alſo topographical maps †.

M. Chauchard's map of Germany (9 ſh. the ſupplement may well be omitted), has a deſerved reputation; but it is to be regretted that he has not ſpecified the mountains and hills. Maps of Germany, north and ſouth of the Mayn, are wanted on a large

* The Azores properly belong to Europe, and ſhould be included in maps of that quarter. The deſcription ſhould have followed that of Portugal, the neareſt land, and to which they belong. The moſt recent account is that of Adanſon, in his Voyage to Senegal, 1759, 8vo. There is a detached map by Lopez; and another by Simpſon, publiſhed by Laurie and Whittle. One by Tofino, 1 ſh. excellent. By Bellin, 1 ſh. 1755.

† The maps of Homann are now of no uſe except for German provinces. Homann of Nuremburg died in 1724; but his heirs and ſucceſſors continued to publiſh maps under that name for forty or fifty years; and among the latter there are ſome of German provinces executed by able hands. See a memoir concerning Homann in the Geograph. Ephem. Nov 1801, p. 464. There are ſome good recent maps of German provinces by Mannert of Nurenburg. Jaeger's Germany, 81 ſh. coarſe. Hanover Poſt map, 4 ſh.

ſcale.

ſcale. The electorates, &c. may be had in ſingle ſheets. Wiebeking's Lower Rhine, or Frontier between France and Germany, 10 ſh. *

S. A map of Germany in 4 ſh. by Covens, bad. By Zannoni, middling. By Klein, in ſome eſtimation. Germany, 4 ſh. by de la Rochette. Dominions of the King of Great Britain in Germany, 1 ſh. Faden, 1789. Germany, from the map by the Royal Academy at Berlin, Faden, 1788, 1 ſh. The German rivers, 4 ſh. The ſame, 1 ſh.

Rieſbeck's Travels the beſt general journey through Germany. Nugent's in Mecklenburg, dull. The Travels on the Rhine by Mrs. Radcliffe, Cogan, Gardnor, &c. Travels in Germany are either too local, or embrace France and Italy, as Keyſler, &c. &c. In German are thoſe of Nicolai, 8 vols. Leſke in Luſatia. The Hartz by Laſius; or the *iter* of Ritter, 1740, 4to. On the S. of the Mayn, Bianconi's Bavaria, and the German works of Hacquet and Gerken.

Italy.

L. The maps of the various ſtates divided into provinces, &c. States of the King of Sardinia by Borgognio, 25 ſh.; copied by Faden, 1765, 12 ſh. Ligurian Republic, 8 ſh. Republic of Genoa by Chaffrion, copied by Faden, 1783, 8 ſh. An excellent large new map of Naples, by Zannoni, is in progreſs.

M. Each of the ſtates on one ſheet. Naples by Zannoni, 1769, 4 ſh. Sicily by Schmettau, 4 ſh. good and ſcarce. Dominions of the Church, by Maire and Boſcovich, 3 ſh. Lombardy, &c. by Zannoni, 4 ſh. very rare. Ciſalpine Republic by Delamarche, 2 ſh. Malta and Gozo by Palmeus; copied by Faden, 1799, 2 ſh. &c. King of Sardinia's dominions by Caroly, 4 ſh. (For Venice, &c. ſee Auſtria.)

S. Italy by D'Anville, 2 ſh. excellent. The ſame improved by de la Rochette, and publiſhed by Faden, 1800, 4 ſh.

The travels in Italy are very numerous. Among the beſt may be mentioned Cochin, 3 vols. 8vo. Paris 1773, uſeful for artiſts. Lalande, 9 vols. 8vo. with an atlas, Paris 1786, a good general compilation †. Martyn, London 1791, 8vo the beſt ſhort guide. Moore's View of Society and Manners in Italy. Dr. Smith's Travels, 1793, 3 vols. Young's Travels in France, for the north of Italy. To which may be added the travels of Ferber, Spallanzani, and Tozetti, &c. and the *Diarium Italicum* of Montfaucon. Swinburn's Travels in the Two Sicilies.

ASIA.

By D'Anville, 6 ſh. ſtill a valuable map for conſultation and compariſon. By Arrowſmith, 1801, 4 ſh. the beſt extant.

Turkey in Aſia.

By Hazius, Vaugondy, &c. 1 ſh. The Euphrates and Tigris by D'Anville. Paleſtine by the ſame *.

The travels of Sandys, Wheeler, Chandler, Chevalier, &c. &c. Maundrell's Journey to Jeruſalem. Ruſſel's Aleppo, &c. Mariti's Cyprus.

Aſiatic Ruſſia.

The maps of the governments are of little uſe, being in the Ruſſian character. Thoſe of the Ruſſian empire have been already mentioned. There are Latin maps of ſome of the governments by Treſſcott and others. The two Latin maps of the river Irtiſh, by Iſlenieff, are curious and important; as is Mr. Ellis's Map and Memoir of the Country between the Caſpian and the Euxine, 1788.

Voyage de Pallas, Giorgi, &c. Theſe intereſting travels are abridged in the Hiſtoire des Decouvertes Ruſſes, Berne, 6 vols. 8vo. Patrin Voyage au Mont Altai, 1781, 12mo. Muller, Hiſtoire du fleuve Amur, 1766, 12mo. Bell's Travels, &c.

Chineſe Empire.

Atlas by D'Anville, which ought to accompany the work of Du Halde. There are 42 maps of various ſizes, of which 16 contain China Proper and its provinces, actually ſurveyed, in the courſe of many years, by the jeſuits, and probably with as much accuracy as the methods and inſtruments then uſed would admit. Eaſtern Tatary, or more properly the country of the Mandſhurs and Monguls, has alſo ſome claims to accuracy, as the jeſuits attended the emperor on frequent journies into theſe provinces: but to the weſt of the river Etziné little dependance can be placed; and the delineations of Little Bucharia and Tibet are certainly groſsly inaccurate.

Tatary by Witſen, 1687, 6 ſh. curious, muſt not be confounded with that by De Witt, 1 ſh. By Strahlenberg, 1737, curious.

The beſt ſmall map of China is that of D'Anville, 1 ſh. This country is alſo well delineated in his Aſia, and in that of Arrowſmith. Part of the empire is illuſtrated in the maps of Iſlenieff, and the Ruſſian maps of the boundaries. See alſo the maps in Groſier's account of China; but particularly thoſe in the Hiſtoire Generale de la Chine.

Nieuhoff's Voyage, excellent. Du Halde's China. Ozbeck's Voyage. Gaubil's Genghiz Khan, Paris, 1739, 4to. for the Chineſe geography of Mongolia. The Memoires Chinoiſes by Amyot, Paris, 15 vols. 4to. chiefly relate to the manners, ſciences, and hiſ-

* Wiebeking's maps of the Rhine, 1796, are very complete.

† The Deſcription Hiſtorique of Richard, 6 vols. 8vo. is preferred to Lalande.

* In general the beſt maps of Aſia, America, and Africa, may be conſulted for each country.

tory of the country: but the Hiſtoire Generale de la Chine, 12 vols. 4to is an intereſting work, and a ſingular monument of French ſcience. Add the excellent Travels of Bell, 2 vols. 4to. or 8vo.; and particularly Sir George Staunton's Account of the Embaſſy to China, and Van Braam's Travels.

Japan.

There is no good large map, thoſe of Kæmpfer only diſplaying part of the coaſts along which he travelled, while his general map is ſmall. D'Anville has made ſome improvements; and there is a map in one ſh. by Robert *.

Kæmpfer's Japan, and Thunberg's Travels, both excellent.

Birman Empire, &c.

The maps in Mr. Symes's Journey. The geography of Exterior India is very imperfect, but expected to be improved by the reſearches of Mr. Dalrymple. For Siam D'Anville's map of Aſia may be conſulted; and for the outline of the coaſts the charts of D'Aprés, which are deſervedly eſteemed.

Loubere's Siam. Turpin, Hiſtoire de Siam, Paris, 1771, 2 vols. Richard, Hiſtoire de Tonquin, Paris, 1778, 2 vols. 8vo.

Hindoſtan.

Rennell's map, 4 ſh. De la Rochette's, 1 ſh. good, 3d edit. 1800. Rennell's Atlas of Bengal. His map of the ſouthern part, dated 5th April 1800. D'Anville's Hindoſtan is antiquated and full of miſtakes. Peninſula of India, Faden, 1795, 2 ſh.

Hamilton's New Account of the Eaſt Indies. Voyage de Bernier, excellent, though old. Bartholomeo (Weſdin's) Voyage, excellent for the ſouthern parts. Hodges's Travels. Voyage de Sonnerat, 2 vols. 4to. The account by Tieffenthaler, in Bernoulli's collection, is a dull and tedious chorography. Knox's Ceylon, &c.

Perſia.

There is no large map of this intereſting country. That of de Liſle †, in 1 ſh. may be compared with the Aſia of D'Anville or Arrowſmith. The materials are vague and imperfect; and there can be little dependence on the longitudes or latitudes even of the beſt Oriental geographers. The recent map by Wahl is illegible; but deſerves to be re-engraved in a ſuperior manner, and on a larger ſcale. That of La Rochette, to illuſtrate the marches of Alexander, is very beautiful, and drawn up with conſiderable care. Georgia and Armenia, 4 ſh. 1780.

* Meſſrs. Roberts, the father and ſon, were geographers of conſiderable reputation, particularly Robert, ſtyled de Vaugondy.

† There is one by Homann of Nuremburg, but that manufacture is in little eſteem. In the *Voyage* of Niebuhr there is an intereſting map of the vicinity of Perſepolis.

Voyage de Chardin, 4 vols. 4to. Thevenot's Travels, bad. Tavernier, good. Le Brun, bad, and the plates ſeem to be frequently fabrications, as uſual in the Dutch books of travels *. Hanway's Travels are good, though prolix. The Journey of Franklin inſtructive and amuſing for the ſouthern part, while the northern is well illuſtrated by Gmelin. After Olivier's firſt volume, little can be expected from his ſecond. Otter's Journey, 1742, ranks among the beſt, but he is too full of quotations from the Oriental geographers. Della Valle eſteemed. The Journey of Olearius, or of the Envoys from Holſtein.

Arabia.

Maps of ſeveral provinces occur in Niebuhr's deſcription; and it is to be regretted that he did not publiſh an entire new map. There is an old map by Vander Aar; but the beſt are thoſe in the Aſia of D'Anville and Arrowſmith, the former is publiſhed apart by Laurie and Whittle, as are likewiſe Perſia, and Turkey in Aſia.

Niebuhr, Voyage en Arabie, 2 tomes, 4to. and his Deſcription de l'Arabie, 1 tome, 4to. To which may be added, la Roque Voyage en Arabie Heureuſe, and the Voyage dans la Paleſtine, Paris, 1717, 8vo. which contains Abulfeda's Deſcription of Arabia.

Aſiatic Iſlands.

Chart by Arrowſmith, 4 ſheets, excellent. D'Anville's Aſia. Map of Sumatra, in Marſden. Of Java, in Stavorinus. The Phillippines, D'Anville or Arrowſmith's Aſia. Of the interior of Borneo, Celebez, &c. little is known.

Marſden's Account of Sumatra. Forreſt's Voyage to Papua. Voyages of Stavorinus, &c. &c. Valentyn's account of the Dutch poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, publiſhed about 1728, conſiſts of five large folio volumes, with upwards of a thouſand copper plates, and is extremely rare even in Holland. Sonnerat Voyage de la Nouvelle Guinée, 4to.

AUSTRALASIA.

New Holland, &c. in Arrowſmith's Chart of the Pacific, 9 ſh. The ſame reduced, 1 ſh.

De Broſſes Hiſtoire des Navigations aux Terres Auſtrales, Paris, 1756, 2 vols. 4to. excellent. Dalrymple's Collection of Voyages in the Pacific, 2 thin vols. 4to. and Supplement, curious and intereſting. La Borde Hiſt. de la Mer de Sud, Paris, 1791, 3 vols. 8vo. Cook's Voyages. Governor Phillip's. Collins's Hiſtory of the Colony, 4to. &c.

* Thoſe publiſhed by Vander Aa are particularly obnoxious; the prints, as in Mandelſlo 1719 or 1727, being often transferred from old books; nay, ſometimes, the ſame view will ſerve for a great number of places, whether they ſtand on rocks or plains.

POLYNESIA.

Arrowſmith's Chart of the Pacific. Maps in De Broſſes; and of Otaheite and Tongatabuo in the Miſſionary Voyage. Iſlands of Navigators, in that of La Perouſe, &c. &c.

Cook's Voyages. Captain Bligh's. Thoſe of La Perouſe. The Miſſionary Voyage. Gobien's Account of the Ladrones. Deſcription of the Caroline Iſlands in the Supplement to De Broſſes, &c. &c.

AMERICA.

North and South by D'Anville, 5 ſh. 1746, 1748, or by Green, 1753, for the progreſs of the geography. But there is no recent general map of this continent, which can be recommended. That of Deliſle, 1739, 1 ſh. curious, and exact for the time. By La Rochette, 1797, 1 ſh.

Morſe's American Geography, 4to. or 8vo.

NORTH AMERICA.

Arrowſmith's Map, with improvements and additions to 1802, about 5 feet by 4, excellent. It is to be regretted that the Spaniſh dominions in North America are not included. For theſe recourſe muſt be had to D'Anville, or to the map of the Weſt Indies by Jefferys, 16 ſh.

United States.

L. There are maps of moſt of the provinces; and a general Atlas publiſhed at Philadelphia, but in little eſteem.

M. Arrowſmith's map, with corrections to 1802, 4 ſh.

S. Single ſheet, common. The provinces in Mr. Morſe's work.

Morſe's Geography. The travels of Kalm, Burnaby, Weld, Rochefoucault, Briſſon, &c.

Spaniſh Dominions in North America.

A great deficiency in the geography, as the Spaniards are peculiarly jealous of theſe rich ſettlements, their chief tenure on the new continent. The Mexican dominions in general ſeem delineated with conſiderable accuracy in the map of the Weſt Indies by Jefferys, 16 ſh. corrected and improved to 1792; and the ſame reduced, 2 ſh. or Bolton's map in Poſtlethwayte's Dictionary of Commerce. There are maps of ſome provinces by Lopez. Others by Sanſon of Old and New Mexico, &c. California by Coſtanzo, 2 ſh. 1771. New Spain, by Alzate, in Spaniſh, 1 ſh. The environs of Mexico may be found in Careri, from a drawing by Boöt, an engineer employed to drain the lake. Another in Clavigero. The bay of Honduras and environs are publiſhed apart by Faden. A new map of the Spaniſh dominions in North America, excluding the Weſt Indies, is greatly wanted.

Recourſe muſt be had to old writers, the beſt being Gage, 2d edit. 1655, fol. or the French tranſlation, Amſt. 1721, 2 vols 12mo. The 6th, or laſt vol. of Gemelli Careri contains New Spain. This work is now acknowledged by the beſt judges to be genuine, and a voyage round the world has ceaſed to attract much obſervation, as there would be little difficulty in paſſing to China, and thence to America and Europe. There ſeems no doubt that Careri performed this circuit: the fault is that the book is rather a diary of trifles, than a work of ſolid information. There is a Spaniſh hiſtory of Cinaloa by Perez de Roxas. For Louiſiana, ſaid to be ceded by Spain to France, the works of Du Pratz, Charlevoix, &c. may be conſulted. The voyages of Pagès round the world, and to the north and ſouth pole, ſeem very doubtful, as may be judged, among other circumſtances, from his deſcription of Mexico. The beſt recent account of Mexico, but unfortunately ſhort, is given by Chappe D'Auteroche in his voyage to California, London, 1778, 8vo. Memoirs of the Jeſuits concerning California, 3 vols. 4to. Madrid, 1757. Noticias Americanas, Mad. 1801, 8vo. Cardenas, Hiſtoria de la Florida. Alzedo's Dictionary.

Britiſh Poſſeſſions.

Arrowſmith's map of North America. Smith's Upper Canada, 1 ſh. 1800.

The Travels of Hearne and Mackenzie, Lahontan, Charlevoix, Weld, &c.

Native Tribes.

Colden's Five Nations. Lafitau's Manners of the Savages, but the figures do not repreſent the people; and the deſcriptions are not of unimpeached accuracy. Charlevoix, Du Pratz. Greenland by Egede, or Crantz. Travels by Carver, Hearne, and Mackenzie, &c. Adair's Hiſtory of the American Indians contains a few curious facts, diſtorted by an abſurd ſyſtem.

North American Iſlands or Weſt Indies.

Large maps may be had of moſt of the iſlands. The Weſt Indies by Jefferys, 16 ſh. Reduced 1 ſh. Bolton's maps in Poſtlethwayte's Dictionary, and thoſe in the Hiſtory of the Weſt Indies by Mr. Edwards.

Labat's Voyages to the Weſt Indies, 6 tomes, 8vo. There are detached French voyages to ſeveral of their iſlands; but the accounts of the Spaniſh are, as uſual, antiquated. Among the Engliſh are Ligon's Barbadoes. Sloane's Jamaica. Jefferys has publiſhed an account of the Spaniſh Iſlands, with 32 maps and plans, London, 1762, 4to. The beſt account of the Britiſh is that by Edwards. Raynal's work is ſunk into diſeſteem, and is ſaid by Mr. Edwards to have no more truth than Robinſon Cruſoe. He was one of the new French philoſophers, who affect to be learned by ſpecial inſpiration.

SOUTH AMERICA.

The map of La Cruz, engraved at Madrid for royal preſents, 1775, and publiſhed at London, by

Mr. Faden, 1799, 6 ſh. the beſt yet given. Maps of ſome of the provinces are among the works of Lopez, but as uſual of little accuracy. The environs of Quito, where the degree was meaſured, may be found in Bouguer, or in the French edition of Ulloa. In 1750, D'Anville publiſhed the province of Quito, 4 ſh. But La Cruz muſt be preferred, though by a ridiculous failure he have omitted to denote in a proper manner the great chain of the Andes, and the other ridges; there are alſo ſome political diſguiſes. In 1774 Falkner, who had been a miſſionary, publiſhed a map of Patagonia in 2 ſh. but it will be found very erroneous, when compared with La Cruz. The Rio de la Plata, and ſome other portions, are alſo publiſhed apart; and our aſſiento and contraband trade has contributed to improve the geography.

Spaniſh Poſſeſſions.

The maps above mentioned. Peru from the aſtronomical obſervations of Condamine, &c. Paris, 1 ſh. Maleſpina's Survey of the coaſt, from the Rio de Plata to Panama, S. and W. 5 ſh. excellent.

The voyage of Ulloa. The beſt tranſlation is the French, 2 vols. 4to, for in the Engliſh, 2 vols. 8vo. many important tables, &c. are omitted, and the prints ſo miſerably reduced that they are alike uſeleſs and unpleaſant. Voyage de Condamine. Lettre de Monſieur Godin. Bouguer, Figure de la Terre, for an excellent account of Peru. Dobrizhoffer, &c. &c. Wafer's deſcription of the Iſthmus of Darien, 1699. Voyage de Frezier, 1717, 2 tomes, 12mo. Gily Storia de Terra Firma, 4 vols. Rome, 1780. Vidaurre Compendio del Chili, Bologna, 1776, 8vo. Viage al eſtrecho de Magellanes de orden de S. M. 4to. Molina Storia Naturale del Chili, Bologna, 1782, 8vo. Storia Civile del Chili, Bologna, 1787, 8vo. both good.

Portugueſe.

The Portugueſe are the moſt illiterate of European nations, and the accounts of their ſettlements in America and Africa obſolete and imperfect. Even the geography of their own country is a maſs of errors; and if they have any maps of Brazil, they are without the ſmalleſt claim to common accuracy or reputation. Blauw publiſhed a map of Brazil, when a great part was poſſeſſed by the Dutch. The Spaniſh map of La Cruz is the beſt modern authority, though here D'Anville ſeem copied. In Bougainville's voyage to the Falkland Iſlands there are ſome local maps and plans.

The Voyage of Bougainville; Sir George Staunton's Account of the Embaſſy to China; with the works of Faria tranſlated by Stevens; Oſorio; Barros the Portugueſe Livy, &c. &c. *

French.

French maps of Cayenne may be compared with La Cruz; but the wide debated lands are now reſigned to the French, with a yet further extenſion of territory towards the river Maranon.

The Voyage of Des Marchais publiſhed by Labat, 4 vols. with a map by D'Anville; and many recent voyages, &c. &c.

Dutch.

There is a detached and rare, but coarſe, chart of the ſhores and rivers, printed at Amſterdam: with ſeveral Engliſh charts of the river Surinam by Walker, 4 ſh. &c. Guiana by Captain Thompſon, 1783, 1 ſh.

Bancroft's Natural Hiſtory of Guiana. Stedman's Surinam, &c.

Native Tribes.

The map of La Cruz. Hiſtory of Paraguay by Charlevoix. Dobrizhoffer de Abiponibus, Vienna, 1784. Molina's Chili, &c.

Iſlands connected with South America.

Ulloa's Voyage. Bougainville's Voyage to the Falkland Iſlands. Cook's Voyages, &c.

AFRICA.

The map of D'Anville, 1749, 3 ſh. is ſtill the beſt, excepting the parts explored by Park and Browne, and may be compared with that of Deliſle. That publiſhed by Wilkinſon, 1800, 4 ſh. is decent, but there are ſeveral errors, and ſome miſtaken applications of ancient geography. The detached maps by Rennell may be conſulted. In Saugnier's voyage, 1792, there is a French map which may afford ſome hints, but there are many miſtakes. The maps in Shaw's work are ſingularly confuſed, from the mixture of Latin and Arabian names, but deſerve to be re-engraved with improvements. That in Lempriere's Morocco ſeems tolerably exact, and from it ſome important poſitions, as the city of Morocco, the chief ridge of Atlas, &c. may be collected.

Africa by Haſius, 1737, 1 ſh. By Robert, 1760, 4 ſh. By Gendron, Madrid, 1754, 1 ſh.

Abyſſinia.

The map in Bruce's Travels may be compared with thoſe of Tellez, that of Ludolf, and the Africa of D'Anville.

The Travels of Alvarez, 1520. Thoſe of Lobo, 1625, tranſlated by Dr. Johnſon. The account of Abyſſinia by Tellez, Liſbon, 1660, folio. Ludolf's Ethiopia, 2 vols. folio. Poncet's Journey, 12mo. or

* Lafitau's Hiſtory of the Diſcoveries and Conqueſts of the Portugueſe in the *New World*, Paris, 1733, 2 vols. 4to. or 4 12mo. ends with 1580, when Portugal became ſubject to Spain. It would have been valuable, as Robertſon, in his Hiſtory of America, has wholly omitted the Portugueſe ſettlements, but the title is groſsly erroneous, as the work is reſtricted to the Portugueſe eſtabliſhments in *Hindoſtan*, and is arranged according to the ſeries of governors of Goa, with ſome ſlight references to African affairs; nor is Brazil perhaps once mentioned in this hiſtory of Portugueſe tranſactions, *dans le nouveau monde*, to uſe the words in the title, by a portentous error, which ſeems to evince that a man may be a jeſuit and yet want common ſenſe.

in Lockman's Travels of the Jeſuits, 2 vols. 8vo. Bruce's Travels, 5 vols. 4to.

Egypt.

The map of D'Anville, and Memoir. The Delta by Niebuhr, &c. Lower Egypt, &c. by La Rochette, 1802, 1 ſh.

Travels of Pococke, Norden *, Niebuhr, Browne. The late French accounts. Volney, Savary.

Mahometan States.

The maps of Shaw, for Algiers and Tunis. The general maps and Lempriere, for the others. Fez and Morocco, after Tofino, Hoeſt, and Lempriere, by Canzler, 1797. Mediterranean, 4 ſh. 1785, Faden.

Shaw's Travels in Barbary, or rather in Algiers and Tunis; the beſt edition is the 4to. The travels of Poiret are trifling, and Chenier's book a feeble compilation. Lempriere, good. Hoeſt, 1779, in Daniſh or German, good. Agrell in Swediſh, 1800. For Tripoli, Bruce, and the publications of the African Society may be conſulted. The curious reader may look into Addiſon's Weſt Barbary, 1671, or Ockley's, 1713. In general Dr. Dapper's Account of Africa, or Ogilby's tranſlation, may ſtill be uſed with advantage, as there are few more recent accounts of ſeveral countries, whence their labours in this portion alone of the globe are not wholly ſuperannuated †. Sanſon publiſhed at Paris a deſcription of Africa, 1656, 1660, 4to. with ſeveral maps.

Weſtern Coaſt.

There are old maps of Congo, &c. in the account of Lopez or Pigafetta, Mandelſlo, Dapper, Cavazzi, &c. and ſmall detached maps by D'Anville, 1731. Of the river of Congo there is a chart by Maxwell, 2 ſh.

A deſcription of Congo by Lopez, or rather by Philip Pigafetta from the papers of Lopez, was originally publiſhed in Italian, Rome, 1591, 4to. whence it was tranſlated into Engliſh by Hartwell, 1597, 4to. in Latin it forms the firſt part of the Smaller Voyages of De Bry, 1598, folio, and there is an appendix by Bruno, 1625, folio.

Deſcrizione Iſtorica delli tre Regni, Congo, Matamba & Angola, compilata dal P. Gio. Ant. Cavazzi. Bologna, 1687, folio, pp. 933, large print, with plates; or Milan, 1690, 4to. This curious work was tranſlated by Labat in his Ethiopie Occidentale, Paris, 5 tomes, 12mo. which muſt not be confounded with the Afrique Occidentale of that voluminous compiler.

In 1776 Proyart publiſhed at Paris his Hiſtory of Loango, from papers of French miſſionaries 1766, with a new but imperfect map, a curious and intereſting work *.

Labat's Collection. Boſman's Guinea. Norris's Account of Dahomey. Park's Travels. Adanſon's Senegal.

The Cape.

The Survey by Barrow. The Travels of De la Caille, Paterſon, Sparman, Barrow, &c. As repeated falſehoods have been detected in Vaillant's books, eſpecially the laſt journey, they are chiefly to be read for amuſement.

The Eaſtern Coaſt.

There is a ſmall map by D'Anville, called Ethiopie Occidentale, which compriſes Mocaranga, and other dominions of the Monomotapa or emperor, 1732; but of theſe ſingular and intereſting countries the geography and deſcriptions are alike imperfect, nor is there even a miſſionary modern account of Mocaranga, Sofala, Sabia, &c †. The letters of the Jeſuits probably preſent ſome materials; but Lockman's is an injudicious compilation, often containing the moſt trivial matters. The German Voyages of Bucquoy 1771, and Thoman 1788, may be conſulted.

Madagaſcar.

Flacourt has publiſhed a map: and Rochon has been contented with one of 1727. Bellin has given a large map. There are ſeveral French accounts, Rochon's being one of the lateſt.

African Iſlands.

General map. There are detached maps of the Iſles of Bourbon and Mauritius, &c.

Rochon's Madagaſcar. Grant's Mauritius, &c. For Kerguelen's Land, Cook's laſt voyage. Glas's Canary Iſlands, &c. For the Azores, ſee Portugal, as they ſtrictly belong to Europe.

HYDROGRAPHY.

THOUGH charts be not conſidered as eſſential in the ſtudy of geography, yet as a few of iſlands, &c. are admitted into collections of maps, it may not be improper to offer ſome hints on the ſubject. In a large or public library indeed the beſt charts ſhould appear as well as the beſt maps. But in general the chief purchaſers of charts are merchants for their counting houſes; and captains and other marine officers, who procure the moſt recent and authentic adapted to the

* There is a French edition, 1800, 4to.

† Dapper's African Iſlands were publiſhed 1668, and his Africa, 1670, in Dutch. The plates are uſed by Ogilby, 1671; and much worn in the French tranſlation, 1686. Sanuto's Africa has ſome curious maps.

* See alſo Zucchelli's Account of the Miſſion in Congo, publiſhed about 1712. Angelo's Voyage to Congo, 1666, is in Labat, tome v.

† Le Grand, in his diſſertations annexed to Lobo's Abyſſinia, (p. 269, Johnſon's tr.) quotes Dos Santos *Etiopia Oriental*, Evora, 1609, of which there is a French tranſlation, Paris, 1684, 12mo.

voyage.

voyage. Such are often bound up together, in the form of a narrow oblong folio, and are ſtyled Neptunes, Pilots, &c. Thus the Eaſt India Pilot contains more than a hundred charts for a voyage to the Eaſt Indies, or even to China, including detached charts of the iſles, coaſts, and harbours, which may be viſited from choice or neceſſity. In like manner the African Pilot preſents charts neceſſary for a voyage to the Cape: and there are Pilots for the Britiſh coaſts, the Baltic, Mediterranean, Weſt Indies, &c. Each chart may alſo commonly be had apart, and is often accompanied with Sailing Directions, as well as the Neptunes and Pilots, in a detached octavo form. The Dutch are careleſs navigators; and the beſt charts are the Engliſh and French. Yet the Dutch, in the ſixteenth century, ſeem to have been the firſt inventors of the collections called Neptunes, Flambeaux, Colonnes de la Mer, &c *.

The moſt celebrated French name is that of M. D'Aprés de Mannevilette, whoſe *Neptune Oriental*, or Survey of the Indian Ocean, &c. is highly and deſervedly eſteemed by all ſeamen. The charts of Bellin, Engineer of the French Marine, 1737—1767, chiefly relate to the Atlantic, and their eſtimation is principally confined to France. His *Neptune General* fills 2 or 3 thick folio volumes. Bellin alſo publiſhed a ſmall maritime atlas, in 5 vols. and a ſeparate deſcription of Guiana and its ſhores. His *Neptune Français* preſents the coaſts of France, Spain, England, Holland, &c †.

In England the Neptunes and Pilots are always compoſed of detached charts, by various authors and obſervers. Mr. Dalrymple, in his zeal to promote geography and navigation, has publiſhed a prodigious number, perhaps a thouſand, detached charts of iſles, harbours, coaſts, ſtraits, ſhoals, &c. chiefly in the Oriental world. Among other works may be mentioned the American Coaſts, or Atlantic Neptune, by Des Barres, 1776, (too full of neology;) the various Pilots publiſhed by Mount and Davidſon; Murdock's Atlantic Ocean, publiſhed by Faden; Mackenzie's Charts of the Shores of Scotland and Ireland, Huddart's Chart of the Weſtern Iſles, Captain Roſs Donnelly's of Ferroe, the Orkneys, Shetland, &c. 1797, which may be compared with Lowenorn's Chart of the Shetland Iſles, 1787. Of the Engliſh coaſts there are various charts, and it might be raſh to indicate a preference. For the preſent purpoſe it will be ſufficient to commemorate a few others.

Arrowſmith's Chart of the Pacific, 9 ſh. and of the Aſiatic Iſlands, 4 ſh. The Indian Ocean, 4 ſh. The South Sea Pilot, 28 ſh.

Mr. Faden has alſo publiſhed ſeveral charts of great reputation as:

Parts of the Baltic 1802, from Nordenanker and Wybe. Gulf of Finland, by Captain Goff, 1785, 4 ſh. Gulf of Florida; Windward Paſſage; Maleſpina's Coaſt of S. America, 1802; Gulf of St. Lawrence, 4 ſh. Coaſts of Labrador and Newfoundland, by Lane; Bay of Breſt, &c. 1802: with ſeveral by La Rochette, drawn from the beſt materials.

Some valuable charts have been publiſhed by Laurie and Whittle, ſucceſſors to Mr. Sayer; and by others, ſuch as Steel, Moore, Mount and Davidſon, Gilbert, Heather, &c. whoſe reputation can only be juſtly eſtimated by ſeafaring men. Even in a ſmall collection the charts of ſeveral iſlands, as the Azores, the Bermudas, the Canaries, &c. &c. will be found intereſting.

The coaſts of Spain, publiſhed at Madrid, 1798, by Toſino, may be conſidered as an acceſſion to European geography; and the ſame aſtronomer has given charts of ſome parts of Barbary.

Theſe hints may ſuffice for the geographical ſtudent; but it may be added, under this department, that there are ſeveral voyages, chiefly publiſhed in France, profeſſedly undertaken for the purpoſe of improving aſtronomy and geography: ſuch are the Voyages of Bouguer, 1749; Chabart, 1753; Courtanvaux, 1768; Caſſini, 1770 *; but particularly the *Voyage par ordre du Roi*, by De la Crenne, Borda, and Pingré, Paris, 1778, 2 vols. 4to. abounding with important obſervations, which have radically improved the geography of ſeveral countries. The Voyage of Kerguelen to Iceland, Greenland, Shetland, Norway, &c. Paris, 1771, or Amſt. 1772, 4to. may alſo be mentioned in this claſs.

It is to be wiſhed that travellers, inſtead of overwhelming us with ridiculous voyages to the Levant, would examine the geography of ſuch countries as are little known, in which caſe they would contribute infinitely more to the ſtores of modern knowledge.

Theſe few obſervations on hydrography may be conſidered as introductory to a brief liſt of the circumnavigations, and more general voyages, which cannot well be arranged under particular countries.

The Voyage of Magalhaens round the World was the firſt, for it would be ungenerous to deny the title, becauſe that great navigator was ſlain in the Philippines. Pigafetta, who accompanied Magalhaens, drew up an account of this memorable voyage in Italian, which has recently been publiſhed in a ſplendid manner. But for general uſe the French tranſlation, Paris, an. 9, 8vo. will be found intereſting.

The Voyages of Sir Francis Drake, London, 1653, 4to.

Dampier's Voyages round the World, London, 1729, 4 vols. 8vo. including Wager's Voyage.

* The hydrographic work of Dudley Duke of Northumberland, Florence, 1647, 4 vols. fol. is not only curious but of ſome value.

† There is alſo a *Hydrographie Françoiſe* lately compiled by Deſauche, one of the chief venders of charts at Paris, and which contains recent French charts of moſt parts of the world.

* There is alſo a journey to Germany by the ſame author, to examine the geography of the Palatinate, &c. Paris, 1776, 4to.

Gemelli

Gemelli Carreri's Voyage round the World, Naples, 1699, 6 vols. He was a lawyer, and left his country from ſome domeſtic uneaſineſs. That he really performed this voyage ſeems now admitted; but the book is trifling, and a voyage round the world is no longer a matter of wonder.

Anſon's Voyage round the World.

Cook's Voyages, with thoſe of Dixon, Portlock, Vancouver, Bougainville, La Perouſe, &c.

To enumerate the collections of voyages would be infinite. The French *Hiſtoire Generale des Voyages* is more amuſing than accurate, and cannot admit of quotation or reference, as the originals muſt be conſulted *. The *Novus Orbis* of Grynæus is the oldeſt collection; which was followed by thoſe of Ramuſio, Hakluyt, and Purchas. Bergeron's curious collection appeared 1630, &c. 8vo.; reprinted at Leyden, 1742, 2 vols. 4to. In 1663 Thevenot publiſhed his firſt volume, which was followed by two others. Ray's Collection, 1693, 8vo *. Harris's Collection appeared in 1705, 2 vols fol. being a good general hiſtory of voyages: it was afterwards improved by Dr. Campbell, 2 vols. fol. 1744. 1748. Stevens's Collection of Tranſlations, 2 vols. 4to. 1711. Voyages from the Harleian Library, 2 vols. fol. 1745. Churchill's Collection, 6 vols. fol. 1752, new edit. Aſtley's Collection, 4 thick vols. in 4to. rare and valuable, 1745; the editor is called Green in ſome catalogues, certainly a man of great learning and induſtry. De Broſſes Navigations aux Terres Auſtrales, Paris, 1756, 2 vols. 4to. tranſlated by Callander, Edin. 1766, 3 vols. 8vo. There are ſeveral modern Engliſh collections; by Salmon, 2 vols. fol. 1755. Guthrie, 7 vols. 8vo. 1767, &c. &c. Thoſe by Hawkeſworth and Dalrymple are in ſuperior eſtimation. To which may be added the recent collections by Dr. Mavor. In German is the *Sammlung*, &c. a collection of the beſt and neweſt travels, Berlin, 1765—1782, 23 vols. large 8vo. In Spaniſh the *Viagero Univerſal*, already mentioned: but this laſt is rather a hiſtory of voyages.

* In Spaniſh there is *el Viagero Univerſal* by Eſtala, Madrid, 1796, &c. which will occupy about 40 vols. 8vo. The Deſcription of the United States and Mexico appeared in 1799. Unfortunately Spaniſh and Portugueſe books can ſcarcely be procured in London.

* Dufreſnoy mentions a collection, London, 1674, 4 vols. fol. and one, 1704, (Churchill's) 8 vols. fol. with a preface by Locke.

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COR-

CORRECTIONS AND ADDITIONS.

In the Botanical Articles the following Errata have eſcaped.

Vol. I. p. 119, l. 9, avina *r.* ovina
19, phrogmites *r.* phragmites
120, 14, moſt *r.* more
17, pumata *r.* pinnata
28, cypherus *r.* cyperus
121, 14, claſe *r.* clafs
122, 4, crithinum *r.* crithmum
23, lavage *r.* lovage
123, 19, membraneous *r.* membranous
125, 25, catuile *r.* cakile
127, 16, ſerapios, *r.* ſerapias
29, jalep *r.* ſalep
128, 2, 6, conapſea *r.* conopſea
128, 15, lauriola *r.* laureola
129, 4, acquilina *r.* aquilina
192, 24, impatiens *r.* impatiens,
32, pno *r.* pon
34, ſtratioles *r.* ſtratiotes
281, 2, coriarea *r.* coriaria
297, 31, low *r.* ſlow
370, 28, bataniſts *r.* botaniſts

Vol. I. p. 542, l. 18, ſhall *r.* it ſhall
585, 10, artia, *r.* aretia

Vol. II. p. 3, l. 13, Tonguts *r.* Torguts
90, l. 12. mouth, *r.* month
296, 18. In travelling through the Andes, Ulloa diſcovered that an Alpine day's journey, from the numerous windings, aſcents and deſcents, may not ſometimes exceed four miles of direct diſtance.
p. 442, l. 5, from the bottom, waich *r.* which
463. Ternat only ſurrendered to the Engliſh on the 21ſt June, 1801, as appears from the Gazette of Jan. 2d. 1802.
p. 660. Trinidad, by Mr. Faden's new map, is about 60 miles in length from north to ſouth, and about 50 of medial breadth; for there are two long promontories ſtretching to the weſt. The total population is 17,718; of whom 10,009 are ſlaves. St. Joſeph de Oruna, the capital town, is about ſeven miles eaſt from the Port of Spain.
p. 661, 4, has formed *r.* has been formed
p. 755, note, l. 4. modern, *r.* ſome modern

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